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History of JACET Kansai Chapter（関西支部の系図）

研究会紹介：

Appendices

関西支部設立 40 周年を記念して

　関西支部紀要編集委員会は、謹んで *JACET KANSAI JOURNAL* No.14 をお届けいたします。今回は 2 部構成になっています。前半は従来の紀要です。武庫川女子大学で開催された 40 周年記念大会において Susan Hunston 先生が講演された内容をそのまま寄稿してくださいました。講演原稿ですので、少し読み易くなっているのではないでしょうか。次に 10 編の投稿論文のうち 2 回の査読を経て採択された 5 編の論文が続きます。

　後半は支部設立 40 周年の記念特集です。最初に歴代支部長に在任中の運営や思い出、今後の支部に望むことを書いていただきました。その当時の先生方の支部に対する熱い想いや活動が文面から伝わってきます。次に「支部系図」と題して学会の中心的活動の歩みを特集しました。支部大会は、その都度テーマを考え、毎年 2 回開催していますし、紀要もその時々において検討を重ねながら 14 号になりました。また、8 つの研究会は独自に紀要や冊子を発行したり、研究会での知見を公刊したりとそれぞれ活発な研究活動を続けていますので、これからの 10 年が一層期待されます。

　JKJ No.14 はたくさんの方々の協力のおかげで無事発行することができました。献身的な査読委員の先生方、広告の掲載をして紀要発行を支援してくださった賛助会員の方々、さらに特集号のために時間を割いて寄稿してくださった歴代支部長や研究会のみなさまには心よりお礼申し上げます。また、編集委員の新田香織先生、ストレイン・ソニア園子先生、八島智子先生、編集作業を温かく見守ってくださった野口ジュディー津多江支部長や幹事の先生方に厚く感謝申し上げます。そして、時間との戦いの中で常に迅速に対応してくださった編集委員会事務局長生馬裕子先生のご尽力に感謝の意を表したいと思います。

　今日研究の手法も多様化してきました。JKJ もその変化に対応すべく、No.15 より投稿原稿の分量を「12 頁以内」から「10 頁以上 20 頁以内」と変更いたします。詳細は最後のページ「投稿規定」をご覧ください。編集者一同、次号への投稿をお待ちしております。そして、この記念号がみなさまの教育と研究の一助となることを願っております。

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関西支部紀要編集委員会を代表して
小栗裕子
2012 年 3 月 12 日

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Part I

Motivated; Self-Directed; Informed – The Model Language Learner in the 21st Century

(Transcript of plenary lecture given at JACET Kansai Chapter 2011 40th Anniversary Conference, Nov. 27, 2011, Mukogawa Women's University, Nishinomiya, Japan)

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I am always nervous when talking to an audience of language teachers, because I am aware that you know much more about language teaching than I do. So let me talk to you not as a language teacher but as a language learner. I have attended classes in quite a number of languages, though I don't speak any of them well and in some cases I have forgotten most of what I ever knew. But I am an enthusiastic, if not very confident, language learner. What, for me, is a good language learning experience? I suggest there are three important factors: motivation, self-direction, and accurate information. Moving beyond my own experience I want to link these factors to three developments in research that are related to language teaching: studies of motivation, studies of English as a Lingua Franca, and studies related to using corpus information to inform language teaching.

Motivation

It is well known that motivation is key to language learning. The best teacher in the world cannot make an unmotivated learner learn. (Though the best teacher will probably motivate the learner). The worst teacher in the world cannot prevent a motivated learner from learning. There are a lot of theories of motivation, but one that appeals to me is the theory of 'possible selves'. This has been developed in relation to language teaching by Zoltán Dörnyei, using concepts suggested by Markus and Nurius (Dörnyei 2010). Dörnyei says that two 'selves' are particularly relevant to language learning: the 'ideal self' and the 'ought self'. He describes the 'ideal self' like this: 'The former refers to the representation of the attributes that someone would ideally like to possess (i.e. representation of hopes, aspirations or wishes)'. And the 'ought self' like this: 'the latter refers to the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. a representation of someone's sense of duty, obligation and responsibilities) and which therefore may bear little resemblance to desires or wishes'. The concept of possible selves is related to motivation because 'motivation involves the desire for people to reduce the discrepancy between their actual and ideal/ought selves.'

Dörnyei argues that the notion of possible selves offers a better explanation for the relationship between the reason for learning a language and the effort a learner expends than other theories. This

has been tested on learners in Hungary, Japan and China. Basically, what it means is that a learner will try hard to learn a language because he or she imagines themselves as a competent speaker of that language or as a member of a community in which the language is spoken. Now here is where the concept of English as a global language is important. Earlier theories of motivation were developed in places where two communities lived side by side, as in bilingual Canada for example. A learner might learn the 'other' language either because they like people in the other community or because they have things they need to do. It assumed a situation of 'us' and 'them' and offered reasons for 'us' to learn 'their' language. But English today does not belong to what Kachru called the 'inner circle' of English speaking countries, or even the 'outer circle'. English is not the language of Britain, Australia or US or even the language of India, Singapore and the Philippines. This is something that has changed in recent years and that goes on changing. And the use of English as a lingua franca is gradually changing the nature of English. But more important for the learner, it is changing the nature of who the learner is.

Because the learner of English does not need to think 'I want to have American friends so I want to learn English' or 'I want to travel in America so I will need to know some English' but rather 'I can imagine myself as a member of an international community, talking to people from all over the world. I can be a user of English, not a learner of English, and English can be my language. This is my ideal self'. To put this another way, English is no longer the language of 'them' – it is increasingly the language of 'us'. And to relate this to motivation – learners may no longer want to sound like 'them' or be able to operate in 'their society' but may wish to be one of 'us', where 'us' is an international community. However, we also need here to narrow down the notion of 'an international community', to make it less of a utopian dream and more of a reality.

 Here I would like to relate the concept of English as a Lingua Franca to the concept of what Adrian Holliday calls 'small cultures'. Holliday makes quite a radical argument about what culture is and how it relates to language learning. In Holliday (2010) he makes the point that much of what is taught about culture, including what is taught to language learners, is often a type of stereotyping, giving the impression that everyone in the target culture adheres to the same norms, and focusing on the points of greatest difference between the home culture and the target culture. In fact, cultures around the world are similar as well as different, and even in the most homogeneous country, each individual will relate to what might be called the 'main culture' in a slightly different way. And national cultures are not homogeneous. In Holliday (1999) he argues that culture is not about nationality, or that national culture is only one kind of culture. He makes the point that people of the same nationality but different ages can feel quite 'foreign' to one another and that communities can be built up among people of different nationalities who nonetheless have a lot in common with one

another. Language teachers might be one example. Holliday argues that when we look at people of different nationalities working on a single project, we might interpret this as people of different cultures interacting and we might look at this as an example of intercultural communication, but we might also interpret the same situation as a single small culture, with its own rules and its own assumptions. Work on communication in international businesses, for example, often picks up that what is going on is not the problematic communication of people from different cultures but the easy communication of people in a single small culture. In fact international businesses work very hard at making themselves into small cultures.

The academic world is a good example of a small culture and it is also an example of a community that very often uses English as a lingua franca. In many universities, in many parts of the world, English is used among people from a wide range of countries. Anna Mauranen has researched the English used by people in the small culture of universities in Finland, arguing that this should be regarded as a variety of English that is just as valid as the English used in Britain or in the US (Mauranen in press). Universities are a familiar example of this, but not the only one. Increasingly in Europe, many businesses, especially in highly technological fields, often use English as the lingua franca even when no native speakers of English work there. We will return to this later, but for the moment we might link this to motivation by saying that a motivated learner of English may well have an imagined possible self that is working in such an environment, a university or a company where English is the lingua franca. This is an imagined self who 'owns' English.

Mauranen's work is based on a corpus of spoken English known as the ELFA corpus. This is a corpus of English used in an academic setting, and used among people who are not native speakers of English but who are speakers of English and to whom English belongs. Although each individual has learnt English after learning at least one other language, for the community as a whole English is an 'owned' language because it is the only language that is shared by all. Mauranen makes it clear that these speakers are not learners of English; they are users of English and their language must be described as such. These are, after all, successful communicators in English. This in turn makes us look at English in a different way.

For example, Mauranen notes that one of the distinctive features of the ELFA corpus is the use of determiners – *the, a* and the 'zero' determiner. Now everyone knows that determiners are a really difficult area of English and that learners of English have a lot of problems with them, particularly if the first language is one without a similar language feature. Mauranen points out, however, that in spoken native speaker English determiners are often omitted, and she draws on the work of Carter and McCarthy on spoken English and ellipsis here. She might also mention new uses of English in

text messaging, for example, where determiner use is very different to what is taught in the English language classroom (Tagg, in press). Mauranen links all this to language change and makes quite a bold suggestion: "non-standard article use may not be best seen as a collection of random errors, but may reflect an ongoing reshuffle of article functions." In other words – just as native speakers of English use determiners systematically, and have systematic ways of not using them, so speakers of ELF do the same. Determiner use is open to change and this change is being influenced by speakers of ELF.

This is important I think to the motivation behind learning English because it very much pinpoints English as belonging to its speakers. On the other hand, for the teacher of English it is not terribly useful because we have to teach what is the norm for our time. We cannot really tell learners that determiner use does not matter because it is changing.

But here is a rather different example, and something which I think is useful for teachers. Mauranen observes that speakers of ELF in academic settings use talk about talk (often called metadiscourse) as a way of managing discourse in a situation when people have different experiences of using English and when the need to be clear and to achieve mutual understanding is important. Although all speakers of English use metadiscourse to make the organization of what they are saying clear, speakers of English as a lingua franca seem to do so more, and differently. For example, Mauranen notes that there are more instances of 'self-rephrase markers' in ELFA than in the MICASE corpus. (The MICASE corpus is a collection of instances of spoken English collected on a university campus in the USA.) Intriguingly, though, whereas in MICASE the most frequent phrase doing this is *in other words,* this phase is quite infrequent in ELFA and instead people tend to say *I mean.* Here are some other examples of talk about talk from ELFA, all with different purposes (from Mauranen in press):

(6.20) …because i think that well *let's put it as a question* can there be a quality as such independently from… [labels the speech act]

(6.21) …or i- *if i, put it more clearly* where can we see this culture… [labels reformulation]

(6.22) …then just some minor things *nothing to criticize you…* [on-record politeness, correction]

(6.23) …*i'm also going to put it a bit more sharply* than you do yourself, on the relationship between… [labels reformulation and aligns with face concerns]

(6.24) …*to put it blunt if you put it a bit bluntly* so that's what i find problematic [labels reformulation and aligns with face concerns]

(6.25) …*this is not criticism but* … [labels the speech act, corrects impression]

(6.26) …*now i'm going to be nasty*… [aligns with face concerns]

To summarise the point of this – learners of English who are going to operate in a native

speaker environment may not need to learn much about metadiscourse. But users of English in an ELF environment will find it useful both to understand how to use other people's metadiscourse to follow what is going on and to use metadiscourse themselves to facilitate the interaction. Looking at examples such as those given by Mauranen also draws their attention to important aspects of personal interaction – speech acts, face and politeness, and reformulations.

Self-direction

Our ideal, motivated learner will know what they want to learn and will be ready to take charge of their own learning. In this situation what a teacher has to do is to allow this to happen. The teacher allows the learner to take responsibility for expanding their own language repertoire. All the teacher has to do is not waste the learner's time by insisting they learn things that are of no interest.

This is fine in principle, but… The learner isn't alone. How do you allow a classroom full of students each to follow their own direction? The learner may not be very self-directed. If a learner's main ambition is to go to sleep, how do you 'allow' that? The learner's self-direction may not be very profitable. Learners do, after all, have to pass exams. If a learner wants to learn only song lyrics the teacher may have to intervene.

Well, I am going to side-step these important questions and focus instead on the wish of learners to improve. I mentioned a moment ago that a learner should take responsibility for expanding their own language repertoire. This might be thought of as 'knowing more words' and 'being able to operate in more situations'. If I could return to my own language learning experience for a moment, I can ask for a train ticket in German, but when the ticket-seller comes back with an explanation that the trains are not running properly because there is a strike, I'm stuck. I would like my repertoire to expand so that I could operate more confidently in that situation. In French I can move around fairly confidently and deal with the unexpected. What I have some difficulty in doing is in taking part in academic conferences in French. This is something I would like to be able to do. And so on. Notice that I am talking here about 'doing more things' rather than 'making fewer mistakes'. I suspect the self-directed learner usually thinks about improvement as 'doing more things' rather than as about 'making fewer mistakes'. As language teachers we might see two sides to this: improvement is 'doing more things well' as well as 'doing fewer things badly'.

There are a number of trends in the study of learner language that help us to move beyond the concept of improvement as avoiding error. One tradition is the study of task-based learning and how learners can be shown to improve as they interact with tasks – improvement being becoming more accurate (= less bad) but also more complex in their speech (= more good). Jason Moser points out

that these two measures interact with one another. In his PhD research he has studied young intermediate learners of English in Japan and looks for reliable measures of improvement. He notes that learners who are experimenting with longer and more complex utterances – learners who are taking responsibility for expanding their own repertoires – are inevitably less accurate than their more cautious peers. Reporting on a case study, identified here as 'D5', Moser (2012) notes that: "D5 [also improved most in the third iteration of the task], with her most complex and fluent language occurring here, although her number of error-free AS-units decreased."

And: "Another characteristic of D5's third performance was the addition of new propositional content on an earlier centre of interest. …Adding new information by expanding a previous theme or introducing a new theme came with trade-offs, as very little of the new language was error-free. Additionally, for many students the new content revealed gaps in their interlanguage and, like D5's new content, contained substantial errors. The nature of the errors indicates they were not the result of speaking too fast or carelessness but instead emerged from the difficulty of producing new content in real-time."

Here we have an example of a teacher (Jason Moser himself) who has succeeded in achieving something difficult – persuading students when talking in pairs to try out new language, to push themselves to expand their own repertoires. We all know that one of the challenges of task-based learning is persuading students to do this in a context that is in many ways artificial – two speakers of Japanese speak to each other in English on a topic selected by the teacher. The increase in errors is a direct result of this success. Moser is careful, then, as are other researchers in this area, to regard errors as necessary to success rather than as indicators of failure.

It has taken some time for the same emphasis to translate into another area of learner research – learner corpora. Corpus research facilitates comparisons between corpora, and there is a strong tradition of comparing corpora of texts produced by learners of English with particular L1 backgrounds and those produced by other learners or by native speakers of English. Work by Granger, Meunier and others is very well-known in this regard. Inevitably, though, this work runs the risk of circularity. Often the learners are identified as having a smaller vocabulary and a narrower range of expression and a higher level of error than the native speaker. Well, yes, this is what learners are – they can do fewer things and they do them less well. I am being inappropriately unkind here of course. The value of the huge amount of research into learner corpora is to give us useful specificity about vocabulary, grammar and the restricted repertoire, indicating where most difficulties lie for a given group of learners and where teaching effort can most profitably be used. Recently, however, this work has developed into comparing learners with themselves – essentially, younger learners with older learners, as a way of noting how learners develop without taking the

native speaker as the benchmark. An early example was Housen (2002), who noted that the development of verb use in learners of English was not linear. The pattern of use of verbs from beginner to advanced learners depends on the form of the verb (-ing form, -ed form etc) and the meaning of the verb.

Housen's work is about accuracy and notes how learners reduce the wrong use of verbs and increase the correct use of verbs. Current work by Chau Meng Huat, however, focuses on how learners expand their repertoire – they learn to say more things in a more complex way (Chau, in preparation). In this respect, Chau's work is similar to that of Moser, though their methodologies are very different. Chau uses a longitudinal corpus of stories written by Malaysian learners of English. All the learners are responding to the same set of pictures in writing their stories, so much of the vocabulary in the corpus is the same. Chau bases his study on the learners' use of grammatical words such as prepositions and pronouns. One particularly interesting finding is the word *that*. The word draws attention to itself because its frequency changes dramatically from the early corpus to the later ones. Whereas other words fluctuate in frequency, *that* is consistent in that the older the learner the more times they use *that*. There are of course a number of ways that *that* is used, and Chau divides these into two types: Not complex: *that* used as a determiner and as a pro-form (1 and 2 below). Complex: *that* used to link clauses, either as the complementiser of a verb, noun or adjective, or as a relative pronoun (3 and 4 below). All examples come from Chau (in preparation). Examples are:

(1) *that* as a determiner

　　e.g.　　They rushed to *that* place and Ali quickly jumped into the river. (023d)

　　　　　　… they quickly ran as fast as they could to *that* sound. (067d)

(2) *that* as a demonstrative pronoun

　　e.g.　　Ali, Abu and Chong were happy heard about *that*. (098d)

　　　　　　After *that*, Ali, Abu, Raju and Siti brought Amira to her house. (122d)

(3) *that* as a conjunction

　　e.g.　　Samad also happy *that* he was helped that girl. (036d)

　　　　　　I went towards the river bank without knowing *that* I was standing on the rough part of the river bank. (103d)

(4) *that* as a relative pronoun

　　e.g.　　When they arrived the hospital, they meet the doctor *that* helped to save Maria. (83d)

　　　　　　At last, she found all the three boys *that* helped her daughter. (118d)

What he finds is that as the use of *that* increases over time, the proportion of complex uses increases. What is more, the range of collocations with *that* as a clause linker increases. The stage 1

learners use *that* as a complementiser (example 3 above) with only three verbs: *know, promised* and *say/said*, and with no nouns or adjectives. The stage 4 learners use *that* with 12 verbs (e.g. *found out, heard, hoped, knew, realised*) and with two adjectives: *happy* and *shocked*. So using *that* to form clause complexes is a minor feature of stage 1 language use but a major feature of stage 4 language use.

Informed

Finally, as a language learner, I wish to obtain accurate information about the language I am learning. This is more difficult than it may sound. Notoriously, native speakers of a language do not always know what they say and still less why they say one thing and not another.

One of the most significant developments in language learning in the last few years has been an increase in the use of corpora, and the internet, as a source of information about a language. Learners now have a wealth of information, literally at their fingertips, and the difficulty lies in how to interpret that information. Or rather, how to turn a mass of data into information. Increasingly, the self-directed learner uses on-line information to become an informed learner.

One of the issues in using a corpus to make discoveries about language is that learners often want to know about grammar but a corpus is best at telling us about vocabulary. However, as we know, corpus research has also encouraged us to re-think what we know about grammar as a matter of vocabulary, or at least of words.

To explain what this means I am going to turn to Dave Willis. Willis (2003), in my opinion, makes the most useful contribution to what is often called pedagogic grammar – the description of the grammar of a language that is most useful to the learner. He distinguishes between three kinds of grammar:

- The grammar of structure
- The grammar of class
- The grammar of orientation

As a quick reminder, the grammar of structure is mostly about word order and the order of clause elements – how to make questions or negatives, or how to use modal verbs and so on. Grammar books are mostly very good at teaching the grammar of structure. The grammar of class is about which words can be used with which structures. For example, if we take the word *that* again – there is a large but limited set of verbs, nouns and adjectives that come before *that* and to which *that* is a complementiser. Words that do not come into that set do not belong to the class of words that are followed by *that*. This is what Gill Francis and I called 'grammar patterns', and they are the source of many problems for learners. The difficulty for grammar books is that there are a lot of

patterns and a lot of words that go with each pattern, so teaching them all is practically impossible. In fact, Willis suggests that patterns cannot be taught at all – we can only alert learners to the fact that patterns exist and then encourage them to notice them and so acquire them gradually and piecemeal. In other words, while we might have a syllabus based on the grammar of structure, we could never, according to Willis, have a syllabus based on the grammar of class. On the other hand, corpus software, which encourages us to look for words and what surrounds them, is a really good tool for helping us to see patterns, or the grammar of class. So the self-directed learner, using a corpus, can become the informed learner in this respect at least.

The grammar of orientation is about decisions that are taken based on deixis – signalling how the objects talked about relate to the speaker and the hearer. Examples include determiners – I can talk about *the conference* or *a conference*, the choice of determiner being determined by how I want to represent our shared or not shared knowledge of this conference. As we know, this is probably the most difficult kind of grammar to teach because so much of what might be considered 'correct' is about interpretation and what is going on in the speaker's head.

What I want to do now is to experiment a bit with how a learner might interrogate a corpus to answer questions about each of the grammar of structure, class, and orientation. Here is an example of each.

The grammar of structure
I am going to look at a type of question structure, and because I am using an unparsed corpus I have to look for a word – in this case *what*? To make life simple, I get 200 lines for *what* and then select only those that are questions at the beginning of a sentence – this is about 45. We get these question forms (among others):

What about + noun
"What about bail? I'll put up any amount they ask."
"What about high school?" "B-minus average"

what if + subject + verb
What if you could go to any sporting event in the world?
"Let's take the phone" "What if we do and he comes by and notices it's missing?"

what +*kind/sort of* + noun + *is it* + *when/that*
What kind of sick society is it when the government spends billions on bombs but cuts disability benefits?
What sort of a society is it that will not buy a winter coat for an old man with holes in his shoes?

what + aux + subject + verb: *what* as verb pro-form

    What are they going to do when they're 30?

    What are you doing? Tell me, I want to know.

    What did you do? I used to sell things, serve, that sort of thing.

    What should current mortgage holders do?

what + aux + subject + verb: *what* as object

    Well what do they want then?

    What has the new 'equality' brought us?

what + verb + complement: *what* as subject

    What would drive a man in his mid-thirties to try and cut it at the highest level?

    What has happened to the British Motor Industry?

what + verb+ subject: *what* as complement

    What is the best goal you have seen?

    What do you imagine is the commonest reptile in the world?

    What, then, would you say is the source of most of your work?

What + object +aux + subject + verb

    What future will the children have if you vote no?

    What sort of society do you want to live in?

A fairly cursory glance at a grammar book suggests this information is no different from the grammar book, so what we find is not remarkable but is accurate. This suggests one or all of three things:

- Intuition about structure is sound
- Known/taught information about structure is accurate
- Structure in English does not change much over time

Now we turn to:

The grammar of orientation

We mentioned determiners above and my example of orientation is the choice between *a* and *the*. This is something that is extremely difficult to explain, as every English teacher knows. It is actually quite interesting to see how many instances of *a* and *the* are a matter of choice and how many are not. Here is an example (http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/students/birmingham/ug-profiles/jack.aspx accessed 13.11.11):

> Why choose Birmingham?
>
> I suppose a number of different factors. I wanted to come to university. I like the campus idea that everything is there for you, but then, you've got a city outside that you can go and explore as well. I'm from quite a small rural village, so I wanted to come and do the big city thing, and university seemed the right time to do that.
>
> I saw a couple of different options, both campus-based universities and cities, such as Leicester, Nottingham and Birmingham, among others. I realised it's actually quite important as well to be happy where you live. It's not just about the university and the course and the campus, it's about the city too. After looking around the cities and the different universities I was applying for, I felt that Birmingham was a city that really appealed to me more than the others. There's loads going on in a really vibrant and student friendly city with lots to do.

We could say a lot about this example, but I'll just point out the instances of choice and non-choice in determiner:

1. No choice: *a number of; the campus idea; quite a small rural village; the big city thing; the right time; a couple of*
2. Choice, one right choice: *it's not just about the university and the course and the campus; the cities and the different universities I was applying for*
3. Choice, more than one right choice: *Birmingham was a city that really appealed to me; in a really vibrant and student friendly city*

That's a bit of a digression, just noting that determiner use is not always a matter of choice. But often it is, of course, and learners do have difficulty making that choice. The example above does point out that phraseology can influence determiner use, and this is something I'd like to explore a little further. This is a study I did some time ago. The target word is *accident* and the basic point is that *the accident* and *an accident* are used in different ways, with very different collocations. Here are some examples:

'An accident' commonly occurs in these phrases:

-   Involved / killed/injured in an accident
-   It was an accident
-   Had an accident
-   After/following an accident

'The accident' commonly occurs in these phrases:

-   The accident happened

- After/before the accident

Another piece of information: if we look for adjectives preceding *accident* we find that they are likely to be preceded by *a*, as in:

- A fatal accident
- A tragic accident
- A serious accident

What use, if anything, is this? This information does not really allow us to police the boundary between right and wrong. 'involved in an accident' may be common, but there are plenty of times when 'involved in the accident' would be the correct choice. The same is true for 'following an accident' and 'following the accident' or 'a serious accident' and 'the serious accident'. When we looked at the grammar of class, we found that frequency is an indicator of how acceptable something is, but when we look at the grammar of orientation, frequency tells us something different – it tells us 'what is often said' or what kind of sequences of meaning are often made. The phrases that I have picked out above make sense only when we see them in longer contexts. So what the learner will see, if anything, will be a common sequence.

179 lines 'involved in … accident', of which most, 130, are 'an'.

- 'I'm sorry to tell you that your husband was involved in an accident this morning'
- I have never been involved in an accident in 20 years of motoring.
- Well the lady that phoned in about the charges for going in an ambulance to hospital. My son was involved in an accident on his motorbike in August. And he was taken from Melton Mowbray to the Queen's Medical Centre…
- A day out for a coach party ended in disaster yesterday when the vehicle crashed … The coach involved in the accident was not fitted with seat belts …
  'serious accident' 113 lines, all of which are 'a serious accident'
- They [adventures] include having a van burned out outside the Gresham Hotel in Dublin in October 1995. Then the replacement van was involved in a serious accident in January 1996.
  'following…accident' 700 lines, of which most (470) are 'after the accident'
- a helicopter service was halted last month after an accident in which four tourists were killed.
- A motorcyclist was killed after a collision with a car on the A944 between Aberdeen and Alford. Two people in the car were taken to hospital with minor injuries after the accident near Tillyfourie junction.
  Looking at these contrasting examples may give learners a sense of the difference between *a* and *the* in these contexts.

The grammar of class

This is where the corpus is much more useful. We find things out that we did not know before. This suggests that: intuition about class is less sound and/or that what is known and taught is less certain or less accurate and/or that class in English changes over time. All of these points have been supported by previous work by Gill Francis and myself. We have observed our own intuitions to be uncertain. Francis (1993) pointed out that grammar books often do not have information about class (of this kind) and we have written extensively about patterns changing over time. Others have done the same, and about class being different in different varieties of English (e.g. Mukerjee 2009).

In case it is needed, here is a quick explanation about 'pattern' and 'class': We know that word class (noun, verb etc) is a matter of pattern, not a matter of inherent meaning of a word. For example, *helicopter* is usually a noun, but in *they helicopter the injured to hospital*, the pattern (pronoun + word + noun phrase + prepositional phrase) makes it a verb. Another example: *must* is usually a modal verb, but in *it's a must*, the pattern (a + word) makes it a noun. The thing that makes *helicopter* a noun and *must* a modal verb is not the meaning of the word but the pattern it is usually found in. Change the pattern, change the word class.

So, pattern puts words into classes. Willis's argument is that the concept of class can be extended far beyond the usual word classes that have names and to classes of words that don't have names. We don't have a name for words that are followed by a that-clause, but the lack of a name doesn't stop them being treated as a class, just as nouns or verbs are a class. The grammar of class is, of course, the point at which lexis and grammar come into contact. Each piece of information is partly about vocabulary and partly about grammar.

Now let's look at an example of how class might be investigated in a corpus, focussing on the need that learners have to discover 'is this correct'? Learners ask teachers to police the dividing line between right and wrong and this is where a corpus is at least potentially useful though not, as we shall see, infallible.

My example comes from an internet question-answer site where learners of English can ask questions about what is correct in English. Here is the on-line dialogue:

Q: Hello. Is it correct to say: 'It is not allowed to park here'? Is it better to say: 'You are not allowed to park here'? Thank you.

A: The first is not common colloquial speech. The second is fine. A sign will simply say 'No parking'.

Q: I am asking because as far as I know it is correct to say 'it is not permitted to park here', but *allow* somehow doesn't sound right to me to be used in this sentence.

> A: You could say 'parking is not permitted here', 'you may not park here', 'you are not permitted to park here', 'parking is not allowed here', or several other turns of phrase. While your sentence is not grammatically incorrect, it is not considered goo colloquial (or formal) English. 'Allow' is fine.
>
> Q: Yes I know these forms, but I am wondering whether it is correct to say: 'It is not allowed to do sth'.
>
> A: It is not incorrect, but it is awkward.
>
> Q: I see. Thank you
>
> http://forum.wordreference.com/showthread.php?t=1825437 (Accessed 11.11.11)

So, according to our on-line expert, 'It is not allowed to' is correct but awkward, and 'it is not permitted to' is of uncertain status. Let's see what we can find out from a corpus.

Search for: 'it + 1 + not + allowed + to' in the BoE.

The corpus search yields about 35 lines. So the sample sentence appears to be correct. But when we look more closely we see that in most cases, *it* is anaphoric e.g.

…visualizing the mind as a tightly closed vessel filled with dangerous volatile material which would explode if **it** [the volatile material] was not allowed to escape.

The move came after the Humanist Society of Scotland complained of discrimination because **it** [the Society] was not allowed to solemnise marriages.

…the new aircraft… was only given a partial certificate of airworthiness. **It** [the aircraft] was not allowed to fly in weather colder than 4 deg C…

There are three exceptions, but the first two are notably 'non-native':

On this motor, he tells us, is the following sticker: "Caution. This actuator is qualified for automatic washing machines and it is not allowed to open it for reasons of closeness." How worrying.

"If I can't speak to you like this, who can? Or maybe it's not allowed to say such things to you. People are worried about the future." Franco listened with a smile, made a joke about their age and said that he was working on the Ley Organica del Estado…

But the next one seems perfectly ok:

That suggests to me that this legislation does not sit easy in this society and is in need of urgent review. As we hurtle towards the next millennium, **is it really not allowed to be old and poor**, living in a dirty house and content to be that way?

Though it may be significant that this is a question. It seems that some 'borderline' acceptable patterns are more acceptable when they are in questions than in statements. That's just a hypothesis.

My own intuition suggested that whereas *it is not allowed to* is at least odd, *it is not permitted to* is much less odd, so I then repeated the search with 'permitted'. This time I got only 13 lines, so on the face of it this appears somewhat less acceptable. However, this time only about half the examples have anaphoric *it*, and none are from noticeably non-native sources. So there are in the corpus around 6 or 7 examples of the target pattern:

> Now, after twelve years, I was discovering that **it was not permitted to take your cat to the vet** or to change your library book during the first fortnight of mourning.

> I thought she would always enter a room frowning, expecting to find something wrong. This time her suspicions were justified and the wrinkles on her brow deepened. "**It is not permitted to smoke**. This is a hospital. You should know better."

> Across the lawn was the bungalow in which Elvis stayed. "Sorry," insisted the guide as I headed off for a quick peek, "**It's not permitted to go near The King's bungalow**." **It is not permitted to pitch a tent or park a caravan** closer than 150 m from a house/chalet.

To repeat: a quick corpus search suggests that 'it is not allowed to' is better than 'it is not permitted to' because it is more common. But a closer look, eliminating false hits, suggests the opposite – that 'it is permitted to' is acceptable, though relatively rare, and the 'it is allowed to' is only borderline acceptable, if that (see Hase 2002 for an explanation of this point). This example illustrates the usefulness of this kind of corpus research, but also the difficulty of it. Corpus data has to be looked at closely to distinguish the 'false hits' – the instances of anaphoric *it* in this case – and there will often be examples of things that have been written for special effect – to show an unusual use of English, or to mimic a non-native speaker, for example. These have to be identified, and discounted. Given enough persistence, I think our learner has probably got correct information, but the learner may also suspect, and probably correctly, that here as so often the grammar is flexible, and a pattern used with one word (*permitted*) attracts other similar words and starts to be used with them, in this case *allowed*. The process of pattern leakage is accelerated by English as a Lingua Franca. I have noticed on European airlines, for example, that *it is not allowed to* is commonly used. So, if the ELF situation of airlines is anything to go by, *it is not allowed to* is already acceptable English though it hasn't found its way into a reference corpus yet.

Conclusion

To summarise, then: I have suggested that the learner of English at the beginning of the 21st century is preparing to be a member of a small culture (or several small cultures) in which English is used as a lingua franca, and that the image of the self as a member of these cultures provides the motivation for learning English. The motivated learner will expand their repertoire of English,

where expansion is a matter of greater complexity of language use rather than of making fewer errors. I have further suggested that access to a corpus will enable the learner to make observations about English, but that this is most useful when the grammar of class is the point at issue.

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Examining the Effects of Presentation-based Instruction on Japanese Engineering Students' Attitudes towards Learning English: A Preliminary Study

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ABSTRACT

English has become a necessary tool for Japanese engineering students; however, generally speaking, engineering students do not have much interest in learning English. For a preliminary study of engineering students' motivation to learn English, we used Dörnyei's (2009) second language (L2) motivational self system to examine their attitudes towards learning English and how presentation-based courses might affect their motivation/attitudes. The results showed that presentation activity is effective in reducing students' anxiety towards using English as well as increasing their interest in it. Moreover, students' perceived competence grew significantly, and proved that the English presentation activity is effective in helping engineering students to gain confidence in using English. Thus, we concluded that the presentation activities are effective in helping learners create clearer visions of their future selves using English.

Key words: ideal L2 self, motivation, presentation-based instruction

I.   INTRODUCTION

English has become a necessary tool for Japanese engineering students, who intend to work in a rapidly globalizing society. Most Japanese engineering students, however, seem to focus more on studying their major field than learning English, and they are neither confident with their English skills nor motivated to learn English. In Dörnyei's (2005) theory known as the second language (L2) motivational self system, the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self are the central concepts. According to Dörnyei (2005, 2009), if individuals' image of how they would like to become or how they believe they should become as L2 users are clear, it would be a powerful motivator to learn English; thus, it is important for learners to imagine situations in which they would need to use English. To successfully motivate Japanese engineering students to learn English, it may be necessary to design English-learning activities based on possible future English-speaking situations so that students can enhance their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self, and then clarify their goals for learning English. Therefore, to motivate Japanese engineering students to study English, we believe it is useful to provide activities that can help students experience English-speaking situations that they might encounter in the future, and create a clear and detailed image of a possible English-using

self. For this reason, we decided to introduce English presentation activities in an L2 classroom and ask students to explain some kinds of engineering products. As a preliminary study conducted prior to a larger study on engineering students' motivation to learn English, we administered a survey to examine how engineering students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English would change through a year-long ELT instruction in which learners engage in English presentation activities.

1. The L2 motivational self system

According to Dörnyei (2005), the L2 motivational self system consists of three components: The ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. They are:

1. Ideal L2 self, referring to the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self: If the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self would be a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves,

2. Ought-to L2 self, referring to the attributes that one believes one ought to possess in order to avoid possible negative outcomes, and

3. L2 Learning Experience, which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. (Dörnyei, 2005, pp. 105-106)

Thus, the ideal L2 self refers to a relatively positive image of the future self, while the ought-to L2 self is a more protective and instrumental image.

The concepts of an ideal self and an ought-to self are types of a superordinate concept known as *possible selves*, which are intrinsically future-oriented in contrast to traditional views of the self-conception (Carver, Reynolds, & Scheier, 1994, p. 134). The ideal and ought-to selves are related to individuals' long-term goals and "as-yet unrealized potential" (Carver et al., 1994, p. 134). As Dörnyei (2005, 2009) explained, the self-image of a future self that is drawn as possible selves could function as "future self guides" and motivate learners to start and continue studying so that they can reduce the gap between their vision and reality. His earlier research results and theoretical considerations led Dörnyei to propose the "L2 Motivational Self System" with its components: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience.

We anticipated that an image of oneself using English in the future as an engineer would affect engineering students' motivation to learn English. Moreover, the concepts of the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self seem to effectively explain Japanese engineering students' motivation to learn English; thus we decided to study and conduct a survey about the attitudes of engineering students towards learning English by using the L2 motivational self system as a conceptual framework.

Recently, some interventional studies were conducted by Japanese researchers (Hiromori, 2006; Nishida & Yashima, 2009; Tanaka & Hiromori, 2007) in which motivational changes through project-based teaching were assessed. These studies indicated that project-based instruction affected students' motivation to learn English when the instruction met the students' interest or needs. Our research is conducted along these lines and examines motivational/attitudinal changes through presentation-based courses by using the L2 motivational self system as a conceptual framework.

2. Designing an English presentation-based course

When developing a technical English course for engineering students, we deemed it necessary to design a class that would help students create and activate a plausible and vivid image of using English in their future careers. As many English self-study guides for engineers suggest, people in that field are often required to introduce technology or products they have developed in English (Campbell, 1995; Davis, 2005; Raman & Sharma, 2008). Moreover, many engineering students seem to be aware of the necessity of English presentation skills because they know they might need to give English presentations in their future careers. Thus, the first author decided to assign the students in her English class to give presentations introducing engineering or machinery products in English.

Giving a good presentation requires certain knowledge about a product, research skills for an in-depth examination of that product, and explanation skills for introducing the product clearly and concisely. Therefore, through learning to give speeches, students will understand what kind of English skills they will need to acquire to succeed as engineers. This will help them develop clear and realistic images of their ideal selves. Furthermore, giving a speech in English may train the learners, because (1) developing a script requires English composition skills, (2) presenting a speech forces awareness of pronunciation and prosody, (3) listening to classmates' presentations improves listening comprehension skills, and (4) researching in preparation for presentations requires reading comprehension skills.

In the class, the first author assigned four presentations introducing engineering or machinery products in English in a single academic year. Students were allowed to choose topics related to their interest areas or dreams and asked to give a 5- to 10-minute long speech following each presentation theme. The themes of the presentation were selected, as they would gradually become more and more complicated so that students would extend their speeches and make an in-depth study of their topics. The themes were product introduction, comparison with similar products, manual explanations, and business presentations. The class instruction also followed these themes with the expectation that students would learn and acquire the necessary skills step-by-step. For each presentation, all students evaluated the performance, content, and clarity of their classmates' presentations and gave comments. The evaluation results and comments were all typed out, along with the instructor's scores for performance, content, clarity, structure, and preparation, and given back to each presenter so that students would notice their strengths and weaknesses and use these to improve their performances and speech. The presentation scripts were also evaluated with regard to content, structure, vocabulary choices, language usage, and mechanics to make students be aware of their grammar, presentation structure, and vocabulary choices. After each presentation, students were also given time to ask questions about classmates' presentations in either Japanese or English. For the last presentation, all students had to ask a question about at least one presentation. Furthermore, students were allowed to choose to present either individually or in pairs.

From the perspective of the L2 motivational self system, the authors expected that students

would come to have a clear image of themselves using English, which, in turn, would influence their attitudes towards learning English. At the same time, we believed that they would gain the confidence to learn English through their English presentation activities. Through presentation activities in which they communicated their knowledge to other people, students may feel a sense of accomplishment that would increase their interest in learning and using English.

II. METHOD

1. Objectives

This study examined engineering students' motivation and attitudes towards learning English from the perspective of the L2 motivational self system. The research questions are as follows:

1. How would engineering students' motivation and attitudes towards learning English change through a year-long presentation-based English course?
2. How would engineering students' perceived English competence change through a year-long presentation-based English course?

2. Participants

The participants were second- and third-year students in the mechanical engineering department of a private university in the Tokyo area who were enrolled in the first author's Technical English I (TEI) and Technical English II (TEII) courses. The second-year students were in TEI, and the third-year students were in TEII. Both TEI and TEII classes were elective, but they meet the university's required English credits. In this college, six instructors, including the first author, taught Technical English classes. Each instructor has a different background and is allowed to choose teaching materials and course designs freely. Students have to study with different instructors for TEI and TEII. Consequently, no participants took the fist author's class twice.

3. Procedure

Questionnaire surveys were distributed in the first class (April) and the last class (January) of the academic years in 2007 and 2008. In 2007, 29 students enrolled (23 in TEI and 6 in TEII); in 2008, 41 students enrolled (30 in TEI and 11 in TEII). We eliminated the responses of students who marked the same number for all items on a questionnaire, because their answers would have interfered with the reliability of data and analysis. We also eliminated those who participated in only one survey. As a result, 46 students participated in total. We used SPSS 16.0 to analyze the data.

4. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of two parts; the motivation and attitudes towards learning English and perceived competence.

1.   Motivational/Attitudinal questionnaire (20 items, 7-point scale, Ryan, 2009)

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Based on Dörnyei's former studies and questionnaires (e.g., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Clément, 2001), Ryan developed motivational scales called Motivational Factors Questionnaire (MFQ) for his study (published in 2009),[2] which ask for individuals' attitudes and motivation towards learning English and about English speaking cultures. Of the 100 items for measuring 17 variables, we used 20 items within 5 variables directly related to attitudes and motivations for learning English. The five variables were the following (see Appendix A for all the items).

Attitudes towards learning English: Four items assessed the interest individuals had in learning English. An example is "Learning English is really great."

Linguistic self-confidence: Three items reflected how confident individuals are in learning English (e.g., "I am sure I will be able to learn a foreign language").

English classroom anxiety: Two items indexed how much anxiety individuals had when using English in the classroom. An example is "I always feel that my classmates speak English better than I do."

Ideal L2 self: Six items served to assess how individuals visualize themselves as future users of English (e.g., "I often imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English," "I can imagine speaking English with international friends").

Ought-to L2 self: Five items reflected the ways in which individuals feel the needs and pressures to learn English. Examples are "For me to become an educated person I should learn English," and "Knowledge of English would make me a better educated person."[1]

2. Perceived competence (14 items, 4-point scale)

To measure how students perceive their English skills, we constructed an original can-do list specific to engineering students based on a former open-ended questionnaire survey that asked students what they wanted or thought it was necessary for learning in an English course. We also considered important elements of technical communication, such as the three Cs (clarity, correctness, concision) when making the can-do list. The questionnaire items are as follows:

・ I can express what I want to say in English.
・ I can understand English documents.
・ I can check my English writing using dictionary and textbooks.
・ I can give a presentation in English.
・ I can have a simple conversation in English.
・ I can write English materials for a presentation.
・ I can choose an appropriate vocabulary when writing English.
・ I know the grammatical rules and different parts of speech.
・ I can speak English with the knowledge of correct pronunciation.
・ I can research necessary information and present the result.

- ・ I can see the difference between written and spoken English.
- ・ I can make myself understood by everyone.
- ・ I can understand what is spoken in English.
- ・ I can understand what native English speakers say.

III.   RESULTS

1. Motivational variables

Before examining each variable of the L2 motivational self system, we checked the descriptive statistics for each item and found several items showing a ceiling effect: "When I think about my future, it is important that I am able to use English" (variable: Ideal L2 self, April questionnaire), "Learning English is necessary because it is an international language" (variable: Ought-to L2 self, April questionnaire), "I get nervous and confused when I speak in my English class" (variable: English classroom anxiety, April questionnaire), and "If I made the effort, I could learn a foreign language" (variable: Linguistic self-confidence, January questionnaire). Although we included those items for each variable, these results may be important.

To study each variable, we calculated the average number of items for each variable. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alphas for surveys conducted in April and January, and the results of paired *t*-tests that examined the growth of each variable from April to January. Since multiple comparisons were made using paired *t*-tests, we applied Bonferroni's adjustment to maintain the error rate. The statistical significance α = .05 became α = .01 because there were five variables. Therefore, the *t*-test results would be significant when *p* < .01. Figure 1 also shows how the means of each variable changed from April to January. According to the results of the paired *t*-tests, English classroom anxiety lessened significantly. Attitudes towards learning English improved, although this improvement did not appear significant after Bonferroni's adjustment.

Significant positive correlations were found between Ideal L2 self and Attitudes towards learning English (*r* = .59), between Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self (*r* = .33), between Ideal L2 self and Linguistic self confidence (*r* = .46), as well as between Attitudes towards learning English and Linguistic self confidence (*r* = .65) in April. In January, there were significant positive correlations between Ideal L2 self and Attitudes towards learning English (*r* = .50), between Ideal L2 self and Linguistic self-confidence (*r* = .34), and between Attitudes towards learning English and Linguistic self-confidence (*r* = .64), while a significant negative correlation was found between English classroom anxiety and Linguistic self-confidence (*r* = -.42).

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and *t*-test results of the motivational variables

N = 46	April		January				
	Mean (SD)	α	Mean (SD)	α	t	p	Cohen's d
Attitudes towards learning English	3.84 (1.14)	.80	4.14 (1.08)	.83	-2.16	.036	0.27
Linguistic self-confidence	3.73 (1.25)	.67	3.92 (1.11)	.66	-1.24	.221	0.16
English classroom anxiety	5.61 (1.29)	.71	5.03 (1.47)	.67	2.89*	.006	0.42
Ideal L2 self	4.36 (1.25)	.87	4.43 (1.11)	.82	-0.12	.908	0.06
Ought-to L2 self	5.28 (1.29)	.79	5.45 (1.01)	.64	-1.00	.324	0.15

*p < .01
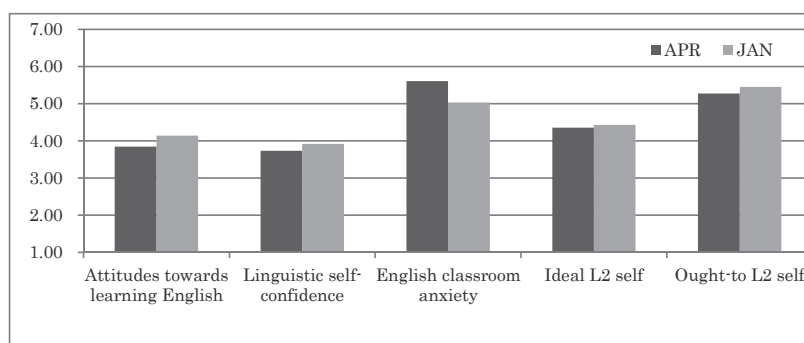
Figure 1. Means of the motivational variables

2. Perceived competence

For the perceived competence, we also examined the descriptive statistics first and found two items showing the floor effect: "I can speak English with the knowledge of correct pronunciation" (April questionnaire), and "I can understand what native English speakers say" (April questionnaire).

When making the can-do list, we considered items that would indicate several different skills. Based on the considered skills and results of exploratory factor analysis, we categorized all items into several groups, each of which indicated a different skill. After checking the Cronbach's alphas of these groups, we decided to use a set of four categories that exhibited the highest Cronbach's alphas. The four categories are (1) English writing skills (4 items, e.g., "I can check my English writing using a dictionary and textbooks"), (2) presentation and explanation skills (6 items, e.g., "I can express what I want to say in English"), (3) daily conversation skills (3 items, e.g., "I can make a simple conversation in English."), and (4) reading comprehension skills (1 item, "I can understand English documents"). See Appendix B for the items in each category. Table 2 and Figure 2 show the

means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas for these categories and the results of the paired
t-tests. For the *t*-tests, we also applied Bonferroni's adjustment; the significance alpha level was set
at .013 (p < .013), because four comparisons were made.

As Figure 2 indicates, each category showed a rather low profile but significant differences
between April and January, as in Table2. In particular, there were large increases in writing skills,
and presentation and explanation skills. Students also tended to perceive more improvement in their
reading comprehension than other areas in both April and January.

Table 2. Means and *t*-test results of perceived competence of English-using skills

| N = 46 | April | | | January | | | | Cohen's |
	Mean (SD)	α	Mean (SD)	α	t	p	d
Presentation and explanation	1.84 (0.53)	.76	2.17 (0.42)	.67	-5.60*	.000	0.68
English writing	2.06 (0.55)	.81	2.32 (0.49)	.72	-3.96*	.000	0.50
Daily conversation	2.07 (0.63)	.73	2.24 (0.58)	.78	-2.70*	.010	0.29
Reading comprehension	2.13 (0.78)	-	2.41 (0.72)	-	-2.66*	.011	0.38

*p < .013
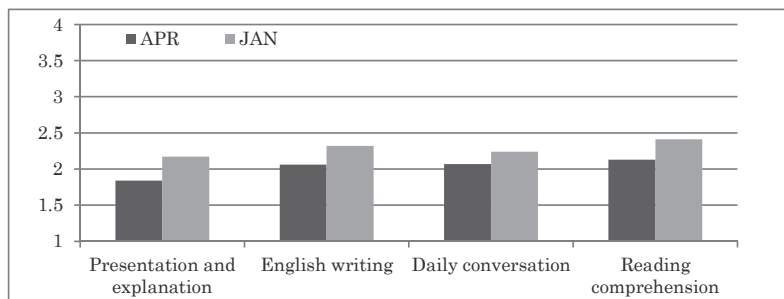
Figure 2. Means of perceived competence

IV.   DISCUSSION

We will discuss the results shown above in relation to each of the two research questions.

**1. How would engineering students' attitudes and motivation towards learning English
change through a year-long presentation-based English course?**

In the results presented in Table1 and Figure 1, the score on English classroom anxiety was
the highest, and those on the Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self were already fairly high in April.

On the other hand, Attitudes towards learning English and Linguistic self-confidence showed lower scores. This may mean that engineering students were afraid to speak out in the classroom and had little confidence and interest in learning English when they started taking the technical English courses. However, they were also able to visualize themselves using English as well as feelings of external pressure to learn English.

After taking a one-year presentation-based class, students showed significantly less anxiety and slightly more favorable attitudes towards learning English. This means that the presentation activities helped the students become used to speaking English in a classroom, overcome their anxiety, and gain greater interest and confidence in learning English. Moreover, scores for Ought-to L2 self and Ideal L2 self remained high in January. This may mean that the presentation activity matched the image that the engineering students had of their future as English speakers, and allowed them to experience possible situations in which they had to use it. From the correlations, we could not see direct relations between English classroom anxiety and Ideal L2 self or Ought-to L2 self. However, in January, Ideal L2 self showed a positive significant correlation with Linguistic self-confidence, while English classroom anxiety showed a negative significant correlation with Linguistic self-confidence. This result may mean that students who overcame their anxiety gained confidence and maintained their ideal image of using English.

Therefore, for research question 1, it is possible to say that a presentation-based course helped students overcome the fear of using English in the classroom and made them more interested in learning English.

2. How would engineering students' perceived English competence change through a year-long presentation-based English course?

The results on perceived competence suggested several items that showed a floor effect, and the students' scores were not very high in any of the skill categories. Among the four categories, Reading comprehension had the highest score. This may reflect the overall effect of the English education that students had received.

All categories showed significant growth between April and January. This would thus show the answer for research question 2. Since the class was presentation-based, it is natural that students felt an improvement in presentation skills. These results may mean that students perceived that they had also gained English writing skills through the presentation-based courses. Therefore, it is possible to say that the engineering students could feel that the presentation-based course was effective for improving both presentation and writing skills, both of which are necessary in the field of technical communication. Furthermore, some students voluntarily wrote in the class reflections comments such as "I'm glad that I could gain a lot of new knowledge through making presentations," "I could improve my presentation by using classmates' comments, and I'm sure my presentation skills have been improved," and "This class let me learn various things, such as presentation skills and knowledge of the specific fields of my major." The above comments and results suggest presentation-based instruction is satisfying and effective for engineering students.

V.　CONCLUSION

　　This study found that engineering students had an image of themselves, or their ideal selves using English and that they were aware of the necessity of studying it as a foreign language. We also found that presentation activities helped engineering students hold the image of themselves using English in their future careers. Moreover, from the fact that students could overcome their fear of using English in a classroom and gained interest in learning English through a one-year presentation-based course, it is possible to infer that presentation activities are effective for reducing students' anxieties as speakers, stimulate their interest in learning English, and help motivate them to learn it. The fact that the students' perceived competence grew significantly also proves that the presentation activities are effective in helping engineering students gain confidence as speakers of English. Thus, we may conclude that giving opportunities to present in English is an effective way of motivating engineering students.

　　One limitation of this study is that the number of participants was not large enough. It may also be necessary to study exactly how the students' English competency developed through presentation-based instruction. However, this study showed satisfying results in that it revealed that presentation-based courses are effective as a method for training students to speak English in a classroom setting. Based on the results of this study, we plan to investigate the processes by which presentation-based courses stimulate the motivation level and affective factors for engineering students. As a preliminary study, we believe that this study has introduced a new perspective on the English curriculum for engineering students.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

NOTES

1. Since the Cronbach's alpha of Ought-to self in January was only .36, we removed two items suggested by the data.　Then, the Cronbach's alpha became .64 in January and .79 in April. Thus, we decided to use the remaining three items for the ought-to L2 self

2. Dr. Ryan was collecting data in 2006, when the first author obtained the scales from him to use it in her study.　We wish to express our thanks to him for letting us use them.

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APPENDICES

<Appendix A>

Items and variables for "the motivational/attitudinal questionnaire"

Attitudes towards learning English

• Learning English is really great.

• I really enjoy learning English.

• I find learning English really interesting.

• I'm always looking forward to my English classes.

Linguistic self-confidence

• I am sure I will be able to learn a foreign language.

• Learning a foreign language is a difficult task for me.

• If I made the effort, I could learn a foreign language.

English classroom anxiety

• I always feel that my classmates speak English better than I do.

• I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.

Ideal L2 self

• The things I want to do in the future require me to speak English.

• Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself being able to use English.

• I often imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.

• I would like to be able to use English to communicate with people from other countries.

• I can imagine speaking English with international friends.

• When I think about my future, it is important that I use English.

Ought-to self

• For me to become an educated person I should learn English.

• Hardly anybody really cares whether I learn English or not.

• A knowledge of English would make me a better educated person.

• For people where I live learning English doesn't really matter that much.

• Learning English is necessary because it is an international language.

<Appendix B>

Items and categories for "Perceived competence"

Concept 1: Accurate English Composition (4 items)

α: April .76, January .67

• I can check my English writing using a dictionary and textbooks.

• I can write English materials for presentation.

• I can choose an appropriate vocabulary when writing English.

• I know the grammatical rules and the different parts of speech.

Concept 2: Presentation and Clear Explanation (6 items)

α: April .81, January .72

• I can express what I want to say in English.

• I can make a presentation in English.

• I can speak English with the knowledge of correct pronunciation.

• I can research necessary information and present the results.

• I can see the difference between written and spoken English.

• I can make myself understood by everyone.

Concept 3: Daily Conversation (3 items)

α: April .73, January .78

• I can make a simple conversation in English.

• I can understand what is spoken in English.

• I can understand what native English speakers say.

Concept 4: Reading (1 item)

• I can understand English documents.

An Empirical Study on Effective Training Sessions
for Pre-Service Elementary School Teachers

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ABSTRACT

This study explored effective training procedures as part of a class offered to university students in a teaching certificate program. More precisely, the author examined the difference in benefit from offering students one training session (control group) in comparison to five sessions (experimental group) on giving game instructions. Specifically, this study attempted to answer the following research questions: 1) whether there is a statistically significant difference in pre-service teachers' ability to give game instructions after receiving five sessions (experimental group) in comparison to one session (control group), and 2) whether five sessions are effective enough for the experimental group to improve their game instruction skills to a satisfactory level. To measure the effectiveness of these sessions, a set of criteria for teaching skills (Matsunaga, 2009a) was employed. The results of statistical analyses imply that the experimental group had significantly higher scores on the post-test compared to those of the control group. However, their average scores did not reach the satisfactory level. These results indicate that allotting more time to practicing certain skills can better prepare pre-service teachers to conduct English activities. Future classes, therefore, should consider incorporating more practical training sessions into their syllabi. The results also indicate that it is necessary to explore a way for pre-service teachers to reach the satisfactory level.

Key words: pre-service teachers, elementary school English activities, training sessions, giving game instructions

I. INTRODUCTION

While English activities have been required for the fifth and sixth grade students in public elementary schools in Japan (MEXT, 2008a), the issue over the quality of teaching has repeatedly been one of the obstacles elementary schools have faced. In other words, more than 90% of English classes are taught by homeroom teachers (MEXT, 2008b) who are not necessarily trained English teachers. Therefore, the level of English teachers in terms of their English ability and teaching skills has been at the center of discussion among researchers (Butler, 2005; Higuchi, Kanamori, & Kunikata, 2005).

Subsequently, in order to more effectively promote a higher quality in elementary school English education nationwide, training sessions based on a clear set of standards should be offered not only to in-service teachers but also to pre-service teachers, i.e., university students in teaching certificate programs. Researchers teaching pre-service teachers at universities have proposed syllabi

for methodology classes on teaching elementary school English (Egawa, 2008; Ito, 2010; Izumi, 2007; Koda, 2009; Yoshida, Kodera, Terada, & Honda, 2006). These syllabi often include both theoretical aspects such as objectives of English activities and methodology on teaching elementary school English, and practical aspects such as learning how to teach songs and chants, and experiencing micro-teaching. Moreover, some researchers (Hojo & Matsuzaki, 2010; Matsumiya, 2010) have suggested appropriate contents for methodology classes based on the feedback they have received from their students. According to the feedback, pre-service teachers tend to prefer learning practical skills such as English conversation skills and game instruction skills, to learning theoretical elements. These proposed syllabi and feedback from pre-service teachers suggest that universities should offer pre-service teachers ample practical training regarding English ability and teaching skills before they go into an actual classroom as a student teacher. Yet, to date, neither extensive research on the actual contents of practical training sessions for pre-service teachers nor empirical studies on the effectiveness of the contents of training sessions have been done. In regards to the current situation, this study explored effective training procedures for university students who plan to become teachers at a primary or secondary level. More precisely, this study empirically measured the effectiveness of a specific training element regarding teaching skills of elementary school English activities, giving game instructions in English.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study, a control group received one 30-minute training session on giving game instructions in English whereas an experimental group received five 30-minute training sessions. The control group experienced a time allotment the author used to employ for her previous students in a methodology class. In her previous methodology class, the students seemed to develop their game instruction skills in English even through one 30-minute training session. However, due to informal observations, the author thought one training session was not enough for the students to improve their skills to a satisfactory level in this study. And this experience led the author to explore appropriate training procedures and a minimum amount of training sessions that should be conducted in order to help pre-service teachers develop their ability to give game instructions to a satisfactory level. Therefore, the experimental group in this study received what the author considered a minimally effective amount of practice time, i.e., five sessions. In addition, offering the pre-service teachers more than five training sessions was not a feasible option, considering the fact that the instructors had to cover other topics and materials required in the methodology class syllabus.

Specifically, this study attempted to answer the following research questions.
1. Is there a statistically significant difference in pre-service teachers' ability to give game instructions after receiving five training sessions (the experimental group) in comparison to one training session (the control group)?
2. Are five 30-minute training sessions effective for the experimental group to develop their game

instruction skills to a satisfactory level (level three: minimum professional competence)?

III. METHOD

1. Participants

The participants in the study were 49 second to fourth-year university students who were in two *Methodology of Teaching English I* classes taught by two different Japanese instructors, including the author, in the first semester in 2010. This methodology class is one of the required classes in an English teaching certificate program offered to literature, economics, and law majors at the university. The students in this program plan to teach at a primary or secondary level in the future. In order to take the methodology class, the students are required to have a minimum TOEIC (the Test of English for International Communication) score of 450, and the average score of the participants in this study was 525, ranging from 450 to 860. In this study, the 49 participants were divided into two groups: 26 students who took the other instructor's class as a control group, and 23 students who took the author's class as an experimental group. The ANOVA (one-way analysis of variance) results on the pre-test scores between the two groups indicated that there was no significant difference in the scores of the pre-test between the groups (see RESULTS section for complete data). This suggested that the two groups exhibited a level of skills in giving game instructions in English similar enough to justify continuing statistical analyses on the data.

2. Materials

Test Materials

Giving game instructions was chosen as the specific training element for this study because it had been one of the most typical skills required in English classes at the elementary school level (MEXT, 2009). The same two games were chosen for both pre- and post-tests in which the participants were evaluated on their skills in giving game instructions in English as if to elementary school students. The two games were chosen from a revised list of games for fifth and/or sixth grade elementary school students, which had been developed by the author and examined for its content validity by two experts on teacher training for elementary school teachers (Matsunaga, 2009b). The two games in the present study were the *secret word game* and the *can you ---? game* (see test cards for the secret word game & the can you ---? game in Appendix B). These two games were chosen based on the level of difficulty so that the test included both easy (the secret word game) and difficult (the can you ---? game) sets of game instructions. The can you ---? game was evaluated difficult since the game activity is more complicated than the other, and its English instructions require a larger variety of English expressions.

Rating scales

For the purpose of setting the minimum levels of teaching skills for elementary school English teachers, the author developed her own level description (rating scale) in order to evaluate a

teachers' current level of teaching skills (Matsunaga, 2009a). The rubric was also examined for its content validity by the above experts. The participants' performance in giving game instructions in English in this study was evaluated based on this rating scale.

In the process of creating the level description of teaching skills, the rubric employed three categories introduced in a test, EPTI (the English Proficiency Test for Indonesia), developed by the SEAMEO -RELC, NLLIA LTRC, and IKIPS (The South East Asian Ministers of Education Organization, Regional Language Center, The National Language and Literacy Institute of Australia, Language Testing Research Center, & Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan) (1997). The EPTI was developed for the purpose of creating an English proficiency test that was relevant to high school teachers of English in Indonesia. Although the main purpose of this test was to measure the English proficiency of teachers, the test was also used to evaluate their teaching skills in English. For instance, the test materials included topics such as gathering and preparing teaching materials, communicating in English in the classroom with students, and participating in professional training and development activities. Therefore, the author found the content of the test relevant to the testing of teaching skills of Japanese elementary school teachers, and referred to the EPTI's evaluation categories on teaching skills when creating her own rubric. The test introduced the following three evaluation categories for teaching skills: (a) overall task fulfillment and completeness of instructions; (b) identification of participants, and use of instructive language; and (c) fluency.

The author reconfigured these three categories into four categories as follows: (a) overall task fulfillment, (b) recognition of students' level, (c) use of instructional language, and (d) fluency. The first element, overall task fulfillment, evaluates participants' ability in conducting activities in a comprehensible manner for their students, using appropriate English expressions, intonation, and pronunciation. The second element, recognition of students' level, evaluates participants' ability in adjusting their level and speed of English to those of their students. The third element, use of instructional language, evaluates participants' ability in employing appropriate classroom English. And the last element, fluency, evaluates participants' ability in conducting activities with a smooth and even tempo. The rating scale employed four levels within the range of 0% to 100%: (a) Level one (0% to 59%), insufficient level to assess; (b) level two (60 to 69%), limited professional competence; (c) level three (70 to 79%), minimum professional competence; and (d) level four (80 to 100%), professional competence, with level three being set as a satisfactory level. In addition, each of the four evaluation categories accounted for the following allotment for a total of 100%: (a) overall task fulfillment, 70%; (b) recognition of students' level, 10%; (c) use of instructional language, 10%; and (d) fluency, 10%. Utilizing this rating scale, the participants' performance in giving instructions of game 1 and 2 was separately assessed based on the four levels in the range of 0% to 100%. Furthermore, since the SEAMEO -RELC, NLLIA LTRC, and IKIPS revealed only the categories but did not reveal level descriptions, the author created her own level descriptions of the four categories (Matsunaga, 2009a). Due to limitations of space, only level descriptions of overall task fulfillment are shown in Appendix A (see Matsunaga, 2009a for more information on the rubric of teaching skills).

3. Procedures

Instructional materials

Although taught by two different instructors, the two *Methodology of Teaching English I* classes, i.e., the control and experimental groups, shared the same syllabus and were conducted in virtually identical ways. The only difference between the classes was that the control group received one 30-minute training session on giving game instructions in English, while the experimental group received five 30-minute training sessions.

The experimental group received 30-minute practice giving game instructions in five classes from weeks four to eight (total of 14 weeks), and five different games for fifth and/or sixth graders were chosen for the sessions. The five games were selected on a frequency basis from the textbooks, *English Notebook 1 and 2 (Eigo note 1, 2)*, which were distributed by the Ministry (2009a) and have been used at public elementary schools. The five games were: (a) a bingo game, (b) a finger pointing game (*Yubisashi-game*), (c) a Japanese card game (*Karuta-game*), (d) a stereo game, and (e) a concentration game. In each session, working in groups of three to four people, the participants received a practice card, which included the information: the name, objectives, procedures, and Japanese instructions of the game. In creating five practice cards, the author referred to the teacher's manuals for the textbooks (MEXT, 2009b). Then, the participants were given four minutes to prepare to act out the game instructions in English to other members in the group. After this group practice, the instructor (author) demonstrated the same game instructions as an example, focusing on instructional language and interaction with students. In this demonstration, the instructor focused on showing the participants how to interact with elementary school level students by using simple English, gestures, and facial expressions that would be useful when teaching students in that level. Following this example, the participants were given five minutes to improve their original instructions, and then they acted out the instructions again to other members in the group.

The participants in the control group practiced giving game instructions of one of the five prescribed games, the finger pointing game (*Yubisashi-game*), in the same week in which the experimental group also practiced the same game. Procedures of this one training session followed the same manner as those of the experimental group. For the other four times when the experimental group received training sessions, the control group spent more time on individual elements in the common syllabus such as learning theoretical aspects of English teaching.

Pre- and post-tests

The participants in both groups took an interview-style practical pre-test in the second or third week of the class. The practical test consisted of the two games and was given individually by an interviewer (instructor) in his/her office for 15 minutes. In the practical test, a participant was given a test card for each game which included the information: the name, objectives, procedures, and Japanese instructions of the game; then, after four minutes of preparation time, the participant had to act out giving the game instructions in English as if to elementary school students. In

addition, all practical tests were video-recorded with permission by the participants. In order to evaluate the tests, the interviewer (the instructor) of each group served both as an interviewer and a rater. After the initial practical test, the original interviewer reviewed the video-recording and rated it based on the rating scale described in the above section, *Rating scales*. Then, on a different day, the other interviewer reviewed the same video-recording and re-rated it in order to confirm the reliability of the first rating. In order to confirm the reliability of the first rating, inter-rater reliability of the two raters on the ratings of game 1 and 2 in the pre-test was separately examined through computing correlation coefficients. The results of the correlational analyses showed that the correlations on the ratings of both games between the two raters were statistically significant and were greater than or equal to .85, $r(49) = .85$, $p < .01$ for game 1, and $r(49) = .89$, $p < .01$ for game 2. These results indicated that the two raters agreed on the ratings on the pre-test to an extent which confirmed the reliability of the first rating. The same interview-style practical test was administered as a post-test with both groups with the same procedures in the 12th or 13th week of the class. In terms of the reliability of the first rating on the post-test, it was again confirmed by the results of the correlational analyses ($r(49) = .94$, $p < .01$ for game 1, and $r(49) = .95$, $p < .01$ for game 2).

IV. RESULTS

1. Research question 1: Difference in test scores between two groups

First, two sets of ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the number of training sessions and a difference in the scores of the pre-test. The independent variable, the number of training sessions, included two levels: one time (control) and five times (experimental). The dependent variable was a difference in the scores of the pre-test. The ANOVA for game 1 was not significant, $F(1,47) = .01$, $p = .96$. The ANOVA for game 2 was also not significant, $F(1,47) = .27$, $p = .61$. These results indicated that there was no significant difference in the scores of the pre-test between the two groups.

Second, two sets of ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the number of training sessions and a difference in the scores of the post-test. The independent variable, the number of training sessions, again included two levels: one time (control) and five times (experimental). The dependent variable was a difference in the scores of the post-test. The ANOVA for game 1 was significant, $F(1,47) = 7.45$, $p = .01$. The strength of relationship (effect size) between the number of training sessions and the difference in the scores, as assessed by η^2, was .35, which is regarded as having a medium effect (Cohen, 1988). The ANOVA for game 2 was also significant, $F(1,47) = 27.75$, $p = .01$. The strength of relationship, as again assessed by η^2, was .37, which is also regarded as having a medium effect (Cohen, 1988). These results indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores of the post-test between the two groups, yielding higher scores for the experimental group. Moreover, the effect sizes in the post-test suggested that the number of training sessions moderately affected the variance of the difference in the scores of both games. The means and standard deviations for the pre- and post-test scores of the two groups are

presented in Table 1. The control group's average post-test score on game 2 (17.50) decreased from their average pre-test score (20.35) mainly because two of the participants in the group scored extremely low on game 2 on the post-test (zero, and six). These two participants scored extremely low because they resorted to using Japanese in conducting the game 2 activity although they were clearly instructed to use only English for their instructions.

Table 1. *Means and standard deviations of pre- and post-test scores of two groups*

		Control (n = 26)		Experimental (n = 23)	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Game 1	Pre	49.42	22.10	49.17	21.73
	Post	50.50	22.76	65.63	13.23
Game 2	Pre	20.35	9.11	16.71	6.37
	Post	17.50	9.00	52.34	22.01

2. Research question 2: Effectiveness of five training sessions

In order to ascertain whether pre-service teachers in the experimental group were able to significantly improve their ability to give game instructions, two paired-samples *t* tests were conducted to evaluate the effects of the training on the scores of each of the two games between the pre- and post-tests. For game 1, the results indicated that the mean score for the post-test was significantly greater than the mean score for the pre-test, $t(22) = 4.37$, $p = .01$. For game 2, the results also indicated that the mean score for the post-test was significantly greater than the mean score for the pre-test, $t(22) = 6.70$, $p = .01$. These results indicated that the participants in the experimental group improved their skills in giving game instructions through participating in five training sessions, as compared to their control group counterparts ($t(25) = 1.69$, $p = .10$ for game 1, and $t(25) = -1.58$, $p = .13$ for game 2).

On the other hand, the average post-test scores of the experimental group in Table 1 indicated that even the experimental group on average did not reach the satisfactory level (level three, 70%) in both game 1 ($M = 65.63$) and 2 ($M = 52.34$). In other words, five training sessions helped to improve the pre-service teachers' game instruction skills to a certain extent, but did not help to improve their game instruction skills to the satisfactory level in the study.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study empirically explored the effectiveness of multiple training sessions in comparison to a single training session on giving game instructions. More precisely, this study examined the difference in benefit from offering pre-service teachers one training session (control group) in comparison to five training sessions (experimental group) on giving game instructions. Specifically, this study attempted to answer the following research questions: 1) whether the experimental group significantly outperforms their control group counterparts on a test of giving

game instructions, and 2) whether five training sessions are effective enough for the experimental group to improve their game instruction skills to a satisfactory level.

The results of statistical analyses implied that offering the participants five training sessions (the experimental group) helped to significantly improve their skills in giving game instructions. This means that the previous time allotment for giving game instructions (one time) may not have been sufficient to improve the students' skills adequately, and therefore, more time should be spent on this type of practice in future classes. The positive results obtained from this study suggested that training sessions as part of class contents in a methodology class would help pre-service teachers improve their teaching skills to a practical extent. Along these same lines, the fact that the average scores of the experimental group did not reach the required professional level in this study (level three, 70%) suggested that it would be necessary to further explore a way for students to reach that level through revising the contents of training sessions. One plausible way would be exposing participants to a larger variety of game activities at different times compared to only five activities in only five classes in this study. In order to introduce more game activities to the participants in a limited amount of time in a course (for instance, 150 minutes in this study), instructors may demonstrate a game activity as if the participants were elementary school students (for instance, 15 minutes), instead of the participants themselves conducting the game activity twice per session in this study (30 minutes). In addition, towards the end of the course, the participants should have opportunities to act out a few game activities themselves (for instance, in the last two sessions) in order to put observations into practice. In this newly suggested way, the participants will learn how to properly give game instructions mainly through observing the instructor's model performances, and therefore, less time is required for each activity (for instance 15 minutes). As a result, the participants can be exposed to a larger variety of game activities at different times (for instance, 10 activities in 10 classes for a total of 150 minutes of training time in this study), and this may better prepare the participants to give game instructions, eventually helping them to reach the satisfactory level. Furthermore, it may be important for the participants to reflect on and evaluate their participation and performances during the training sessions so that they can understand what they have learned and what they still have to improve. Finally, this newly proposed way may require instructors themselves to be familiar with a variety of game activities and prepared to give pre-service teachers proper model performances.

The following limitations should also be considered when interpreting the data in this study. First, this study had only a limited number of participants (a total of 49), and therefore, the data may not be statistically valid. However, the author believes that the data can show an overall tendency of the effectiveness of practical training sessions on giving game instructions in English. Second, this study covered only one typical element regarding teaching skills, giving game instructions, and resulted in restricting positive effects of practice only to this area. With these limitations, however, this study still offers valuable implications for future research on effective training sessions for pre-service elementary school teachers. For instance, the research method in this study can be applied to different areas of training sessions. In other words, future research on effective contents of classes

offered in teaching certificate programs should examine different areas related to English ability or teaching skills such as classroom English for their effectiveness on improving skills of pre-service teachers. And the author hopes that an accumulation of more empirical data of this kind will help improve the development of classes in teaching certificate programs, making program contents more practical and effective for pre-service elementary school teachers.

Note

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APPENDIX A (Level Descriptions on Overall Task Fulfillment)

Teaching skills: Overall task fulfillment	
Levels	Descriptions
4	Very competent in teaching English. When explaining how to perform a game, can briefly explain it, effectively using picture prompts or gestures, including all the necessary information. When performing a model dialogue, can explain the situation well, effectively using picture prompts or gestures, with appropriate intonation and pronunciation.
3	Competent in teaching English. When explaining how to perform a game, some pausing or hesitation is evident, but can explain it well enough for students to carry out the game, using picture prompts or gestures, including most of the necessary information. When performing a model dialogue, some pausing or hesitation is evident, but can explain the situation, using picture prompts or gestures, and use acceptable intonation and pronunciation well enough for students to follow.
2	Only marginally competent in teaching English. When explaining how to perform a game, pausing or hesitation is evident. Trouble explaining the game instructions well enough for students to carry out the game, missing some necessary information. When performing a model dialogue, pausing or hesitation is evident, and trouble explaining the situation.

	Errors in intonation and pronunciation in a dialogue are evident. Cannot be a good model for students.
1	Not competent in teaching English. When explaining how to perform a game, pausing or hesitation is evident, and it is almost impossible to explain the instructions well enough for students to carry out the game, missing much of the necessary information. When performing a model dialogue, pausing or hesitation is evident, and almost impossible to explain the situation. Difficult to read a dialogue aloud, with many errors in intonation and pronunciation. Impossible to be a model for students.

Note. The teaching skills rubric consists of four categories: Overall task fulfillment, recognition of students' level, use of instructional language, and fluency. Each category consists of four levels: Level 1, insufficient level to assess; level 2, limited professional competence; level 3, minimum professional competence; and level 4, professional competence.

APPENDIX B (A Translation of Test Cards)

Secret Word Game

Game: Secret word game
Objectives: Students (5th or 6th graders) will learn names of occupations, and will be able to repeat them after the teacher.
Style: listening game, conducted in pairs
Prepared materials: Picture cards of various jobs, an eraser
Procedures:
1. Students work in pairs, sitting face to face. Each pair puts an eraser between them.
2. The teacher says one of the occupation names on the board, and the students repeat it after the teacher. However, when the teacher says the secret word, students should not repeat the word. Instead, they have to pick up the eraser. Those who grab the eraser, earn 1 point.

Test criteria for giving instructions: An interviewee must include the following instructions. He/ she is also expected to effectively use the prepared materials and appropriate gestures.

Required instructions: (the following instructions are given in Japanese except for 1, 6, & 7.)

1. Let's play the Secret Word game!
2. Work in pairs.
3. Sit face to face with your partner. Then, put an eraser between the two of you.
4. Repeat the word after me.
5. But, when I say the secret word, "carpenter," do not repeat it. You must pick up the eraser!
 (end of the test)
6. You get the eraser, and you get one point.
7. You get more points, and you are the winner.

Can You---? Game

Game: Can you ---? game
Objectives: Students (5th or 6th graders) will be able to ask and answer questions, using
    "Can you ---?" "Yes, I can. / No, I can't."
Style: interview game, conducted in pairs
Prepared materials: a worksheet, which details five people and six things each person
            can/cannot do
Procedures:
1. Students work in pairs, sitting face to face. Each student chooses who he or she will
    become from the five people on the worksheet, but does not tell the partner his or her
    choice.
2. The students in pairs ask and answer questions, using "Can you ---?" "Yes, I can. / No, I
    can't." The student who can guess who his or her partner is with fewer questions will
    be the winner.

Test criteria for giving instructions: An interviewee must include the following
    instructions. He/ she is also expected to effectively use the prepared materials and
    appropriate gestures.

Required instructions : (the following instructions are given in Japanese, except for 1 &
    7.)
1. Let's play the Can You ---? Game!
2. Work in pairs, and sit face to face with your partner.
3. Look at your worksheet. Choose one person you want to be.
4. But, do not tell your partner who you are.
5. Ask and answer questions, using "Can you ---?" "Yes, I can. / No, I can't."
6. When you know who your partner is, ask your partner "Are you ---?"
(end of the test)
7. Ask fewer questions, and you are the winner.

Note

In the process of creating the above two test cards, the author referred to the game activities
introduced in Saito, E. & Takeuchi, O. (Eds.). (2007) in REFERENCES.

英語学習者の読解方略と学習スタイルについて

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to theoretically explain individual differences of learning strategies, reading strategies and learning styles. Reading strategies have become a key feature of current reading instruction. Generally, the specific reading strategies tend to be used for all the learners to improve their reading skills in the classroom. However, from the point of view of individual differences, learning styles seem to be very important for successful reading. It is often said that learning styles are related to learning strategy use and successful learning. On the other hand, there is little study on the relationship between reading strategies and learning styles. Also, the definition of the terms and the taxonomies are controversial among researchers though many studies have done. Thus, this study aims to structure the fundamentals of learning strategies, reading strategies and learning styles in order to consider the importance of individual differences in reading.

キーワード：読解，個人差，学習方略，読解方略，学習スタイル

1. はじめに

　日本人英語学習者にとって，読解は最も親しまれている活動であるにもかかわらず，TOEIC および TOEFL では日本人の読解力はかなり低い。1970 年代後半より，ESL 言語環境において 4 技能を網羅している学習方略の研究が始まり (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1981; 1987)，EFL 言語環境においても盛んに取り上げられている。読解方略の研究についても，EFL 言語環境において効果的な指導法を見出すために行われている (Arimoto, 2011; 林, 2009; Ono, Midorikawa, & Robson, 2001; 卯城, 1996)。

　読解方略は，大きくは認知的側面であるトップダウン処理とボトムアップ処理に分類され (Barnett, 1988; Block, 1986)，読解の目的に応じて，教室の中ですべての学習者に対して同じ方略が指導されている。特に，優れた読み手をモデルとして，彼らが使用している読解方略は未熟な読み手にも当てはまり，読解力も向上するであろうと考えられている。しかしながら，学習者にはそれぞれ個々に得意，不得意があり，すべての学習者に指導した読解方略が適切に用いられているとは限らない。効果的に学習者の読解力を養うためには，学習者個々の特性である学習スタイルを知ることが必要である。

　学習スタイルは 1970 年代より心理学の分野において提唱され，第二言語獲得研究にも応用されている。学習スタイルのモデルには，順次—任意，抽象的—具体的という生来の本質に基づくもの，指導の好み，情報処理スタイル，認知的性格スタイルのように生得的

な側面と環境的な側面を兼ね備えているもの，経験や環境への順応性のある好みとするもの，場依存・場独立という認知的側面に基づくものなどがある (Curry, 1983; Dunn, 1984; Gregorc, 1979; Kolb & Kolb, 2005; Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, & Cox, 1977)。一般的に，優れた学習者の特性には，学習スタイルが関与しているといわれている (Christison, 2003; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Skehan, 1998; Stern, 1975)。一方，読解方略と学習スタイルの関連性については，あまり研究がなされていない。

　学習方略，読解方略および学習スタイルは，多くの研究で取り上げられているが，EFL 言語環境における学習者の個人差については十分な研究がなされていない。また，これらの用語の相違は曖昧であり，その定義や分類法も研究者間でかなり見解が異なっており，指導法に大きく影響することになる。そこで本研究は，学習方略，読解方略ならびに学習スタイルの定義と分類法について理論的に検証することを目的とする。まず，読解方略の前提となる学習方略について，先行研究を基に，その定義および分類法を考察する。

2. 学習方略
2.1 学習方略の定義
　ESL 言語環境において 1970 年代後半より，Rubin (1975)，Stern (1975)，Naiman, et al. (1978) などによる優れた学習者の用いる学習方略の研究が始まり，1980 年代から 1990 年代前半には，O'Malley and Chamot (1990)，Oxford (1990)，Wenden (1991) などによって学習方略の分類法が提唱されている。しかしながら，定義については研究者間で見解が異なり，問題があると指摘されている (Ellis, 1994, pp. 531–532)。

　まず，方略を行動的，精神的，またはその両者ととるのかが明確ではない。このことについては Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, pp. 608–609) も指摘している。Oxford and Crookall (1989) は，学習方略は学習手段，学習反応，学習行動であり，学習の学習，問題解決，勉強法であるが，どのように呼ばれようと方略は学習をより能率的，効率的にすると定義している。O'Malley and Chamot (1990) や Chamot (2004) は，学習者が学習目標を達成するためにとる意識的な思考や行動であるとしており，Dörnyei (2005, p. 167) は，定義に思考を加えたことは重要であると述べている。Oxford らは行動主義の観点からのアプローチであり，O'Malley and Chamot らは行動に加え，思考についても示唆している。近年では，学習方略は思考と行動の両者を包括しているといわれている (Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 2007)。

　次に，意識的または無意識であるのかどうかということである。しかしながら，方略は指導することが可能であり，学習者は，学んだ方略をうまく適応させようと意識的に用いるものである。学習方略には目的があり，学習の促進，特定の課題や問題の対処，学習を容易に，速く，楽しくする，学習の欠点を補うために用いる (Cohen, 2007, pp. 38–39)。以上より，学習方略を，学習者が目的を達成するためにとる意識的な行動および思考であり，直面する問題を解決し，効率的に学習するために用いる方法と定義付けることができる。

2.2 学習方略の分類
　学習方略の分類についても様々な分類法が提案されている。Rubin (1981) は，学習方略

を 2 つの範疇に分類しており，言語学習に直接的にかかわる処理過程と間接的にかかわる処理過程を挙げている。直接的方略には，解明・検証，推測・推論，帰納的推論，暗記，練習，モニタリングの 6 つが含まれている。間接的方略には，練習や産出の機会を作ることの 2 つが挙げられている。

　その後，Rubin (1987) は方略を，学習方略，コミュニケーション方略，社会方略の 3 つに分類している。学習方略は，学習に直接的に構成し影響する言語構造の発達に寄与する方略とされているが，後に，学習方略はメタ認知方略と認知方略の 2 つの範疇になる。コミュニケーション方略は，言語学習にはあまり直接的に関係していないが，会話への参加，意思の疎通，または話し手の意図を明らかにする過程に重点が置かれている。社会方略は，学習者に自身の知識に触れ，実践する機会を与えることを盛んに行う活動である。Rubin は，認知方略とメタ認知方略は両者ともに言語学習に直接的に関与するものとしている。当時は，この 2 つの方略の分類は困難であるとされていたが，両者の違いを明らかにしたのが，O'Malley と Chamot (Chamot & Küpper, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) である。

　O'Malley and Chamot (1990) は，情報処理モデルに基づき，学習方略をメタ認知，認知，社会・情意方略の 3 つの範疇に分類している。Chamot and Küpper (1989) によると，メタ認知方略とは，学習過程について考え，学習について計画し，学習題材をモニターし，どのようにうまく学んでいるのかを評価する方略である。近年では，自己制御という用語が用いられているが，これはメタ認知方略と同義語と捉えることができる (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Dörnyei, 2005)。認知方略とは，学ぶ題材と相互作用し，精神的，身体的に取り扱い，特定の手法を学習題材に応用する方略である。社会・情意方略とは，学習を支援するために他者と相互作用し，学習タスクの助けとするために効果的な抑制を用いる方略である。

　Oxford (1990) は，学習方略を直接的と間接的方略の 2 つの範疇に分類している。直接的方略には記憶，認知，補償方略，間接的方略にはメタ認知，情意，社会方略が含まれている。この分類法は Rubin (1981; 1987) に起因しているように思われるが，メタ認知方略を間接的方略としている点で相違がみられる。また，記憶方略と補償方略について提示しているのも Oxford のみである。記憶方略は，新しい情報を記憶し検索するのを促す。補償方略は，背景的知識や言語的手掛かりの使用など，学習者の不足している知識を補う目的で用いられる。記憶方略について Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 608) は，認知方略と同等であるのに別の範疇として扱われているが，記憶方略は明らかに認知方略の下位の部類であるとしている。また，補償方略は一般的に推測や推論と呼ばれており，認知方略に含まれている (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)。Dörnyei and Skehan は，コミュニケーション方略を学習方略の範疇から取り除き，Oxford の記憶方略と認知方略を一つにまとめ，O'Malley and Chamot の社会・情意方略を分けるべきであるとし，認知方略，メタ認知方略，社会方略，情意方略の 4 つに分類している。

　Hsiao and Oxford (2002) は，Rubin (1981)，O'Malley and Chamot (1990)，Oxford (1990) の分類法を比較し，Oxford の 6 分類が，(1) 直接的方略と間接的方略の 2 分類，(2) O'Malley and Chamot の 3 分類，(3) O'Malley and Chamot に基づく 4 因子（認知，メタ認知，社会，情意方略）と 5 因子（記憶，認知，補償，メタ認知，社会・情意方略）より適切であるこ

とを明らかにしている。しかしながら，Oxford の分類法には十分適当であるといえるデータは得られておらず，他の可能性も考えるべきであるとし，学習方略の分類法について十分考慮しなければならないと示唆している。LoCastro (1994) が指摘しているように，学習方略は ESL 言語環境において提唱されていることから，日本の EFL 言語環境に適応しない方略もあることも念頭に置かなければならない。学習方略を 4 技能別にみると，それぞれの方略については具体性に欠けており，明瞭ではない部分もある。特に，読解方略については，その定義および分類法は研究者間で相違がみられ，曖昧な部分も多く，概念を理解するのが困難である。したがって，読解方略について明らかにすることが必要である。

3. 読解方略
3.1 読解方略の定義
　読解方略とは，Barnett (1988) によると，読み手が効果的に文章に取り組み，読んでいる内容を理解するときの知的活動である。Carrell (1998b) は，読み手が目的や目標を達成するために，能動的に選択，制御する行動であるとしている。Barnett の定義は思考を意味し，Carrell の定義は行動を意味している。読解方略の定義において，意図的，または意識的かどうかという点について議論がなされているが，前述のように，方略とは目的に応じて意識的に用いる行動および思考である。したがって，読解方略を，意識的な行動および思考であり，読み手が文章を能率的に理解するために，目的に合わせて読み方を制御，適応させる方法と定義づけることができる。

3.2 読解方略の分類
　一般的に，読解方略は，トップダウン処理方略とボトムアップ処理方略に大別されている。例えば，Block (1986) は全体的方略と局所的方略，Barnett (1988) はテクストレベル方略と語レベル方略としている。しかしながら，読解活動の観点から考慮すると，認知的側面であるトップダウン処理方略とボトムアップ処理方略の 2 分類ではなく，人の思考および行動的側面からさらに明確にする必要がある。本研究では，O'Malley and Chamot (1990)，Oxford (1990)，Yamato (2000) を参照し，メタ認知，認知，社会・情意の 3 つの側面から読解方略を表 1 のように分類する。
　読解において，メタ認知方略とは，読む目的を明確にする，理解をモニターし，修正する，どのようにうまく読んでいるのかを評価する方法である。認知方略とは，読み手自身の知識と文章の情報をうまく活用して，分析や推測によって文章の内容を理解する方法である。社会・情意方略とは，他者との協力，自身の感情のコントロールなど，環境に適応するための方法である。
　表 1 に挙げている読解方略を，良い，悪いとみなすのではなく，題材のトピックや読む目的によってその使用は異なる。例えば，馴染みのあるトピックならば，背景知識やイメージの利用，ストーリーの展開を推測して内容を理解するであろう。一方，馴染みのないトピックの文章を読む場合は，細部まで目を通して内容を理解する必要があり，一文ずつ分析したり，文章構成を把握して情報の繋がりを理解したりする。試験など限られた時間

の中で，素早く内容を把握することが求められるときは，必要な情報のみへの注目，推測，スキャニングなどを使用して読む。Carrell (1998a) が述べているように，効果的に読解方略を使用できるようになるためには，方略とは何であるのか，なぜ学ぶ必要があるのかという宣言的知識，どのように方略を用いるのかという手続き的知識，いつどこで方略を使用するのかという状況的知識の3つのメタ認知的知識が重要である。

表 1. 読解方略の分類

読解方略	説明
メタ認知方略	
モニタリング	自分の理解が正しいかどうか再確認する。誤りに気付く。
注意	包括的に文章を捉え，必要のない情報を避け，目的に合わせて重要な情報のみに注目して理解しようと計画する。
予習	事前に学習内容について取り組み，分からないことがあると情報を収集して明確にしておく。
復習	学習したことを繰り返し練習し，応用する。
計画	読む目的を明確にして文章を読む。
評価	自身の読解の成果を評価する。
認知方略	
分析	一文ずつ細分化して詳細に理解する。
橋渡し推論	代名詞の照応関係を推測するなど，文章の一貫性を考える。
精緻化推論	背景的知識を用いて，文章の展開，書き手の意図などを推測する。
演繹的推論	学習した規則を当てはめて理解する。
推測	文章中の情報から，新しい文法規則や未知語の意味を推測する。
精密	新しい情報と既存知識を結び付ける。
イメージ	文章の内容についてイメージを思い描きながら理解する。
翻訳	母語に変換して理解する。
チャンキング	文を意味のまとまりごとに区切りながら読む。
スキミング	全体に目を通して文章の主題を掴む。
スキャニング	重要な情報のみを探して内容を把握する。
つなぎ言葉	つなぎ言葉から，文章の展開を考える。
背景的知識	語彙・文法知識や社会・文化的知識を利用して内容を理解する。
文章構造	文章の構成を把握し，情報の繋がりを理解する。
要約	読んだ内容を，重要な情報を組み込んで短く纏める。
社会・情意方略	
協調	問題解決，情報交換など，他者と協同学習する。
質問	自分の理解が正しいか明確にするために，教師や仲間に質問する。
不安軽減	深呼吸で気持ちを落ち着かせるなど，読むことへの不安を少なくする。
危険負担	難しい文章でも，間違いを恐れず，進んで読み続ける。

　読解方略は，学習者に読み方のコツを指導するために有益であり，その指導の効果が報告されていることから注目されている。しかしながら，一般的に読解力の育成に効果的であるとされる方略を指導しても，学習者には，学習スタイルによって向き，不向きがあるのではないだろうか。読解方略は，指導者が読解の目的に応じて，教室の中ですべての学習者に読解力を向上させるためのより良い方略を指導することであるの対し，学習スタイルは，学習者個人のもっている特性であり，好み，心的なもの，認知的な要因などがある。そこで，学習スタイルを取り上げ，学習者の特性について考えていく。

4. 学習スタイル

　学習スタイルは，一般的に，学習者のもっている比較的一貫した，永続的な好みを表す特性であるといわれているが，その定義にはいくらか議論がある。本研究では，学習スタイルの研究において特に議論を呼んでいる 3 つの見解を取り上げる。

4.1 学習スタイルは生来的であるのか，または環境や状況によって発達，変化するのか

　学習スタイルを好みと定義する研究は多いが (Brown, 1994; Christison, 2003; Dunn, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005; Reid, 1995)，Dörnyei (2006) は，好みの定義付けにおいて，状況に応じて学習者が使用しているスタイルを変えるという柔軟性の欠如には問題があると指摘している。Coffield, Moseley, Hall, and Ecclestone (2004) は，Dunn の理論は学習者の好みを比較的不変的で生来的なものであるとしており，指導を好みに合わせることを強調するあまり学習者の多様な可能性を制限してしまうという欠点があると懸念している。

　Skehan (1998, p. 237) は，ある程度の傾向があるので，人が選ぶスタイルは生得的資質というより個人的好みが多少影響していることを暗示しており，固定性は当てはまらないであろうと述べている。学習を経験の変化を通じて知識が生み出される過程とする Kolb (Kolb & Kolb, 2005) の経験学習理論によると，学習スタイルは経験を通して発達するものである。また，学習スタイルと文化の関連性の観点から，その国特有の社会的習慣や宗教が学習スタイルに影響を与えていることが明らかになっている (Nelson, 1995; Oxford & Anderson, 1995)。Christison (2003, p. 269) は，文化内の誰もが同じ好みをもっているわけではなく，むしろ文化は人の好みの発達に影響していることを意味していると述べている。

　対照的に，Gregorc (1979) の提唱しているマインドモデルにみられる具体的操作と抽象的操作は，Piaget (1968) の思考発達段階説に関係している。具体的操作から抽象的操作へと移行する順序は一定であり，段階の生じる年齢の個人差はあっても発達の順序は不変的である側面もある (林, 2011)。青木 (2005) は，学習スタイルを生来のものと捉えるのか，環境により変化するものと捉えるのかは，どちらかが正しく，どちらかが間違っているという性質のものではないと述べている。学習スタイルには生来的な側面と環境によって変化する側面があり，相互に作用し合って学習者の特性を形成している。

4.2 学習スタイルと認知スタイルは関連しているのか

　認知スタイルとは，人がどのように理解し，考え，問題を解決し，学び，他者とかかわるのかという処理における個人差である (Witkin et al., 1977)。認知スタイルと学習スタイルについて，両者は同じであるとする研究もあれば異なるものであるとするものもある。Riding and Cheema (1991) は，認知スタイルと学習スタイルの主な差異の一つは，考慮されるスタイルの要素の数であるとしており，認知スタイルは二極の側面があるのに対し，学習スタイルは多くの要素を含んでいることから，二者択一の極限ではないとしている。

　Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 602) は，認知スタイルは特徴的なパターンで情報を処理する傾向であるのに対し，学習スタイルは一般的に学習に取り組むための典型的な好みであると定義している。すなわち，前者は情報処理における好みに限定されるが，後者は学習

のいかなる側面をも包含している。

4.3 学習/認知スタイルは知能と同じであるのか

　Riding (1997) は，認知スタイルと知能には関連性はないと述べている。また，Skehan (1991; 1998) は，多くの研究から認知スタイルに含まれる場依存・場独立と言語習熟度の相関は $r = .30$ であり，この相関は有意性を得ているが，第二言語学習の成功への重要な影響は意味していないとしている。しかしながら，知能を測定する側面を除くと相関は低くなることから，場依存・場独立は知能と同じであるという見解を導き出している (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003, p. 603)。林 (2011) は，多重知能理論の観点から，人には 8 つの知能（言語的知能，論理・数学的知能，音楽的知能，視覚・空間的知能，身体運動的知能，対人的知能，内省的知能，博物的知能）が備わっており，学習スタイルは知能とは異なるとしている Gardner に対し，学習スタイルには知能と関連している部分もあると述べている。

　以上の見解の相違を考慮すると，学習スタイルとは，学習者が物事を学ぶ際に好んで用いる，個性的で，一貫した特性であり，生来的にもっている学習者の好みの中には，経験によって変化し，環境に適応していくことも可能であるものもある。方略とスタイルの違いについては，前者は，目的に合わせて意識的に使用を適応させることができるが，後者は，目的や状況にかかわらず，学習者が無意識的に常に好んで用いるものである。

4.4 学習スタイルの分類

　学習スタイルの構成要素もまた，研究者間で異なっており，Brown (1994) の身体的，情意的，認知的領域，Oxford and Anderson (1995) の認知的，実行的，情意的，社会的，生理的，行動的側面，Reid (1995)，Christison (2003) の認知，感覚，性格の 3 領域，林 (2011) の好み，生来的，心理的要素などが挙げられる。以上の側面を考慮すると，学習スタイルは表 2 のように分類することができる。

　認知的スタイルとは，学習者が物事をどのように処理し，理解するのかということである。場依存・場独立については，前者は，文法などの規則を文脈の中で暗示的に学ぶことを好む学習者であり，後者は，文法などの規則を明示的に学ぶことを好む学習者である。全体的とは，内容の概要を把握することを好み，分析的とは，細部まで理解して内容を掴むことを好む。衝動的・熟考的とは，答えを導き出すために，素早く推測を行うのか，ゆっくり分析をして結論を出すのかという特性である。

　生理的スタイルには，学習者の知覚と環境が深くかかわっている。視覚的な学習者は，書籍など文字に起こしている文章を読むことや絵図を見て理解することが得意であり，聴覚的な学習者は，講義など口頭での説明を聞く学習方法を好む。触覚的学習者は，実際に物に触れることを通して理解し，運動感覚的学習者は，身体を使い，動作をすることを通して理解することを好む。環境的側面とは，学習する場の環境や席順の好みであり，社会的側面とは，個人学習または協同学習という学習方法の好みである。

　性格的スタイルとは，人の情意的側面である。曖昧さへの寛容性とは，分からないことがあっても気にせず学習を進めることができるのか，または一つのことに執着して，そこ

で理解が止まってしまうのかということである。内向性・外向性とは，社交的か内気かという性格の側面である。

表 2. 学習スタイルの分類

学習スタイル	種類	特性
認知的スタイル	場依存	非論理的，帰納的な学習
	場独立	論理的，演繹的な学習
	全体的	包括的な理解，流暢さ
	分析的	段階的な理解，正確さ
	衝動的	即座に決断
	熟考的	時間を掛けて検討
生理的スタイル	感覚的	視覚的 聴覚的 触覚的 運動感覚的
	環境的	音，光，気温，席順
	社会的	グループ学習，ペア学習，個人学習 講義形式，授業参加
性格的スタイル	曖昧さへの寛容性	一つの解答，多様性のある解答
	外向的	人前で堂々と発言をし，口答試験が得意
	内向的	発言は少ないが，記述試験が得意

　目的に合わせて意識的に用いる学習方略とは対照的に，学習スタイルとは，学習者が一貫して好んで用いる方法であり，一人一人特性は異なる。次に，読解方略の観点から，日本の EFL 言語環境における優れた読み手と未熟な読み手の特徴について考察する。

5. 優れた読み手と未熟な読み手

　優れた読み手の使用する読解方略の研究は，ESL 言語環境において Hosenfeld (1977)，Block (1986; 1992)，Barnett (1988)，Carrell (1989) らによって取り組まれている。一般的に，優れた読み手はトップダウン処理方略を使用するのに対し，未熟な読み手はボトムアップ処理を使用する傾向にあるといわれている。しかしながら，日本の EFL 言語環境では，優れた読み手と未熟な読み手の特徴には相違点がみられる（表 3 参照）。

　表 3 が示すように，卯城 (1996) は，一般的にいわれている優れた読み手と未熟な読み手の特徴を示している。一方，Ono, et al. (2001) や Arimoto (2011) では，優れた読み手は文法知識を使用する，文単位での分析を行うなど，ボトムアップ処理方略を用いている。未熟な読み手についてみると，逐次的，部分的な和訳や文構造の分析は行っていない。また，語彙の推測，文脈からの内容推測，結論の予測など，トップダウン処理方略を使用している (Arimoto, 2011; 林, 2009; Ono, et al., 2001)。以上のように，日本の EFL 言語環境におけ

る優れた読み手と未熟な読み手の特徴に相違点がみられることから，学習者の読解方略の使用には，学習者個々のもっている学習スタイルが影響しているのではないかということが考えられる。

表 3. 優れた読み手と未熟な読み手の特徴

	優れた読み手	未熟な読み手
卯城 (1996)	次に起こる情報と前述の情報をうまく関連づける。 文章中の文法，語句だけでなく，背景知識を活用して内容を推測する。	難しい語句があると一語一句解読し，推測することができない。 常に和訳しながら読み，全体の意味を掴むことがうまくできない。
Ono, et al. (2001)	文レベルの分析をする。 語彙，文法知識を使用する。 スキミングをする。 背景知識を使用する。	内容や形式から語彙を推測する。 逐次的，部分的和訳や文レベルの分析は行わない。言語的知識（語彙，文法，背景知識）は使用していない。
林 (2009)	トピックセンテンスやキーワード，つなぎ言葉を利用する。 文脈から意味を把握する。	和訳をして読む。 背景知識を利用する。 書き手の意図や結論を予測する。
Arimoto (2011)	文法知識を使用し，文法を把握する。語彙知識を利用する。文を意味のまとまりに区切りながら読む。 パラグラフ構成を理解し，パラグラフごとに内容を把握する。	文脈から内容を推測する。文構造の分析や文法には注目しない。 文章中の情報を結びつけて内容を理解することが難しい。背景知識と内容の関連付けが難しい。

　Aebersold and Field (1997, p. 16) によると，優れた読み手の特性には個人差の側面である学習スタイルが関与している。学習スタイルについて，米山 (2002, p. 287) は，学習スタイル自体良い，悪いという価値観を含むものではないとしている。同様に，学習者個々の学習スタイルが英語学習で陥りやすい困難点を把握し，それに応じた適切な課題を用意することによって，学習スタイルの発達を促すことの重要性を示唆している。学習者のもっている学習スタイルの長所を理解し，その長所を伸ばす機会を与える。また，学習者に馴染みのない読解方略の指導をし，多種多様な読み方を示すことによって意識的な使用から無意識的な使用へと発展することに繋がり，学習スタイルの柔軟性を育成することが可能となる。読解方略の指導では，学習者の特性を活かし，学習者の得意，不得意とする読み方を相互に組み合わせながら触れさせ，少しずつ慣れていくようにすることが大切である。

6. おわりに

　本研究では，学習方略，読解方略ならびに学習スタイルについて，先行研究に基づいて理論的に検証してきた。学習方略とは，学習者が効果的に問題を解決し，目的を達成するために意識的に用いる方法であり，メタ認知，認知および社会・情意的側面における行動と思考である。また，読解方略とは，読み手が文章を能率的に理解するために，読む目的に合わせて読み方を適応させる意識的な方法である。一方，学習スタイルとは，学習者のもっている，認知，生理および性格にかかわる一貫した個性的な好みであり，生来的で変わらないものと経験や環境によって変わるものがある。

　学習スタイルは，学習方略の使用と関連性があるといわれているが，読解方略とどのように
かかわっているのかを明らかにしている研究はあまりない。しかしながら，優れた読
み手と未熟な読み手の特徴は研究者間で異なっており，その相違の要因は，学習者の英語
習熟度のみならず，学習者のもっている学習スタイルが読解方略の使用に関与しているの
ではないかということが考えられる。このことから，効果的に読解方略の指導を行うため
には，学習者の特性である学習スタイルについて知ることが大切である。指導者側からの
一方的な読解方略の指導ではなく，学習者の得意とする読み方をさらに確かなものにする
ための指導，または，困難としている読み方に少しずつ触れて慣れるように促す指導を織
り交ぜることによって，自律した読み手となるように支援していくことが求められる。今
後は，本研究の理論に基づき，読解方略と学習スタイルの関係について調査を行い，検証
することを課題とする。

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